The Administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps

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The Administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps

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Preface

In the following pages the writer has attempted a practical study of the administration of the Emergency Conservation Work. The purpose of this study is to give a picture of the initial two year program; to evaluate the administrative organization and methods in terms of accepted principles of administration; and to analyze the social and economic objectives and consequences of the program in relation to the cost.

Although this work covers practically all phases of the program it is titled the Administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps for two reasons: (1) approximately ninety-five per cent of the camps are administered by this organization; and (2) the program is generally referred to as the C. C. C. project.

It is a pleasure to acknowledge the indebtedness incurred in the course of this work. Special gratitude is due Dr. James Hart who suggested the subject and gave valuable comments and suggestions, and to Dr. Johannes Mattern for his constructive criticism. The writer appreciates the courtesy and information given by Charles H. Taylor, Assistant Director of E. C. W.; Miss Janette Harrington, Secretary to Director of Publicity, E. C. W.; John D. Coffman and Conrad L. Wirth, Assistant Directors of the National Park Service; Herbert Evison, Supervisor of State Park Work; G. A. Duthie, of the Forest Service; certain members of Army district headquarters personnel; and camp commanders, educational advisers, forest supervisors, project superintendents, and enrollees in the Third and Fifth Army Corps areas.

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CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL SKETCH OF THE EMERGENCY CONSERVATION WORK PROGRAM

The first of the numerous projects initiated by the New Deal was the Emergency Conservation Work program. The purpose of this program is threefold: the relief of acute distress caused by unemployment, the building of health and morale among thousands of young men, and the restoration of the depleted resources of the United States. This emergency conservation project is being carried on by the Civilian Conservation Corps and a few similar agencies. They are engaged in the protection and improvement of forests, parks, watersheds and other natural resources. The work is under the supervision of the Emergency Conservation Work organization, the departments of Agriculture, the Interior, Labor and War, and several bureaus of service. Some knowledge of the origin and development of the Civilian Conservation Corps and its allied agencies is essential to the understanding of their organization, functions and administration.

Development of the Idea

Secretary of War, Dern, has rightly called President Roosevelt the "father of the Civilian Conservation Corps" because the idea was solely and wholly the President's.[1] One cannot be certain how long the idea was in the mind of the President, but his interest in conservation dates from his boyhood. His mother has stated that, while yet in his "teens," he was interested in forest conservation on their Hyde Park estate.[2] Like Washington at Mt. Vernon, Roosevelt recognized that every homestead, like each member of a family, should have its own individuality and saw that this could be developed by forest conservation. Professor Raymond Moley, former Assistant Secretary of State, thinks the President got the idea at Harvard, when he heard William James discuss the moral equivalent of war.[3] In his essay on this subject James said in part:

> If now . . . there were, instead of military conscription a conscription of the whole youthful population to form for a certain number of years a part of the army enlisted against Nature, the injustice would tend to be evened out, and numerous other goods to the commonwealth would follow. . . . To coal and iron mines, to freight trains, to fishing fleets in December, to dishwashing, to road building and tunnel making, to foundries and stoke holes, and to the frames of skyscrapers would our gilded youths be drafted off, according to their choice, to get the childishness knocked out of them, and to come back into society with healthier sympathies and soberer ideas.[4]

While, in his own words, "a youngster in the State Legislature," Roosevelt, "for no known reason," was made chairman of the committee on forests, fish and game. He thought this position was given him because nobody else wanted it, but he soon took deep interest in his assignment, though he knew very little about it. He invited Gifford

Pinchot, the Chief Forester of the United States, to Albany to advise him and the Legislature, and Mr. Pinchot, whom the President has called one of the first of the "brain trusters," delivered a professional lecture on the subject of conservation. In speaking of this lecture and the work of his committee, the President said: "We passed our legislation and that was the first step toward practical government supervised forestry as far as I know in the eastern part of the country. It started me on the conservation road."[5]

Through his long practice of forestry as a private citizen and his interest in conservation as Governor of New York, the President has rightly been called "forestry minded."[6] His conservation work on the twelve hundred acre Hyde Park estate, especially since 1915, is comparable on a miniature scale with what he is attempting to do in the national forests. Over five hundred acres are given over to forests, and worn-out land is reforested. Besides reforesting with many different species, the conservation work includes the cutting and selling of mature timber, and the protection of the land along the Hudson against soil erosion.[7]

The President is familiar with even the details of his carefully tended and constantly improved five hundred acre forest tract. He has reserved over one hundred acres for ecological, esthetic and experimental purposes, and the remainder is devoted to timber producing areas, divided into seven working groups, each managed somewhat differently. A new phase of reforestation was introduced when he demonstrated the practicability of growing Christmas trees commercially.[8] Perhaps this experimentation in reforestation and conservation influenced the President's idea of using the experimental method in government.

Mr. Roosevelt's reforestation work was not confined to his northern estate. During Southern vacations he acquired sundry abandoned farms in the South, reforested them, and then organized local protective associations to further the cause of conservation.[9] Speaking on one occasion of conservation he said: "There must be replacement and a policy of administration that will guarantee a maximum of beneficial use with a minimum of waste. Our forests and waters and the wild life that they support are essential to the health and economic welfare of the people."[10]

As Governor of New York, Mr. Roosevelt undertook a program of reforestation in a broad way. He tackled the subject as though nothing else of any importance had been suggested by his administration and the program initiated by him soon caught the imagination of the entire country.[11] A very definite program was worked out with regard to submarginal land and its possible use for "the growing of crops of trees."[12] A law was passed "providing for the purchase and reforestation of these lands in a manner approved by the State, part of the cost being borne by the county and part by the State.[13] In 1931 the people voted the "Reforestation Amendment," which called for large scale reforesta-

tion of marginal land then put to no productive use. This amendment has a definite schedule providing for the appropriation of twenty million dollars to be expended over an eleven year period in the purchase and reforestation of over one million acres of land.[14] This schedule of appropriations for the purchase, planting and conservation of abandoned, idle and useless farming land was suggested by Roosevelt to guide future legislatures in their reforestation legislation.[15] Reforestation has also made its contribution to the relief of unemployment in the State. During the last year of Mr. Roosevelt's governorship, ten thousand extra persons from community unemployed lists were used in the tree nurseries and for the planting crews.[16] It was this, no doubt, which suggested the wider use of the unemployed on reforestation projects in the nation.

With President Roosevelt's New York experience in reforestation in mind, one can readily appreciate the significance of that part of his speech of acceptance which many thought fantastic, but in which he said:

> We know that a very hopeful and immediate means of relief, both for the unemployed and for agriculture will come from a wider plan of the converting of many millions of acres of marginal and unused land into timberland through reforestation. There are tens of millions of acres east of the Mississippi River alone in abandoned farms, in cut over land, now growing up in worthless brush. Why, every European nation has a definite land policy, and has had one for generations. We have none. Having none, we face a future of soil erosion and timber famine. It is clear that economic foresight and immediate employment march hand in hand, in the call for the reforestation of these vast areas.
>
> In so doing, employment can be given to a million men.[17] That is the kind of public work that is self-sustaining, and therefore capable of being financed by the issuance of bonds which are made secure by the fact that, the growth of tremendous crops will provide adequate security for the investment.
>
> Yes, I have a very definite program for providing employment by that means. I have done it, and am doing it today in the State of New York. I know that the Democratic Party can do it successfully in the nation. That will put men to work, that is an example of the action we are going to have.[18]

The public proposal of such a far reaching conservation and unemployment program evoked derision from friend and foe alike. The candidate's friends explained the suggestion as one of his "brain storms," and his opponents spoke of it with ridicule. Secretary of Agriculture, Arthur M. Hyde, whose department had charge of the Forest Service, interpreting reforestation in the narrow sense, explained that only a few thousand men could be put to work planting trees. He spoke of the proposal as being of an "utterly visionary and chimerical character."[19]

But the Roosevelt proposal was not a mere campaign promise, to be forgotten with the passing of the summer heat. It was an essential

part of an emergency program for the immediate relief of that increasing army of unemployed which was looking to him for relief. It was to be the first experiment of the New Deal. If there was any doubt as to the purpose and scope of the candidate's proposal, it was cleared away as the campaign progressed. At Atlanta, in speaking of why he believed just as much in country planning as in city planning, Mr. Roosevelt said:

> Everyone knows that we are using up our American timber supply much faster than the annual growth of new timber. Therefore, unless we are willing to face a day not so far distant when we shall become a nation dependent on importing the greater part of our lumber from other nations, we must take immediate steps greatly to increase our home supply.
>
> It is common sense and not fantasy to invest our money in tree crops, just as much as to grow annual agricultural crops. The return on the investment is just as certain in the case of growing trees as it is in the case of growing cotton, or wheat, or corn. . . .
>
> Because we are a young nation, because apparently limitless forests have stood at our door, we have declined up to now to think of the future. Other nations whose primeval forests were cut off a thousand years ago, have been growing tree crops for many hundred years.[20]

At Boston, a few days later, he stressed the relief feature of his reforestation program when he said, in part:

> The first principle is that the nation owes a positive duty that no one shall be permitted to starve. Second, in addition to providing emergency relief, the Federal Government should provide temporary work wherever possible. In the national forests, on flood prevention and on the development of waterway projects already authorized and planned, thousands at least can be given temporary employment.[21]

These campaign statements, coupled with his conservation program as Governor of New York, gave the American electorate a clear-cut idea of the definite emergency relief and conservation program of the new President. As unemployment grew worse and the economic situation more tense during the winter months, everyone was wondering what the new leader's first line of action would be, and when it would begin. When Roosevelt was inaugurated there was no time to speculate upon the causes of unemployment. "It was a fact. It was contributing to an unprecedented increase of crime. It was the principal factor behind the increasing appearances of social unrest indicating a serious threat to the social structure, even as licks of flame in a smoky building portend a condition menacing the very existence of the edifice."[22] In his inaugural address the new President said:

> Restoration calls, however, not for change in ethics alone. This nation asks for action, and action now. Our greatest primary task is to put people to work. This is no unsolvable problem if we face it wisely and courageously. It can be accomplished in part by direct recruiting by the Government itself,

> treating the task as we would treat the emergency of a war, but at the same time, through this employment, accomplishing greatly needed projects to stimulate and reorganize the use of our natural resources.[23]

In that paragraph one can visualize the Civilian Conservation Corps as the "vanguard" of "The New Spirit of American Future," as the President called it in his first radio address to the "forestry army."[24]

Proposal of the Program

Although the banking crisis of "the first twelve days" may have delayed President Roosevelt's breaking away from the old order and the beginning of his "new order," yet it was evident that he would lose little time in launching his emergency conservation work program. On the very day Congress met in extraordinary session, the secretaries of Agriculture, the Interior, and War, the Director of the Budget, the Judge Advocate General of the Army, and the Solicitor of the Department of the Interior met with the President to hear him outline his program for the conservation of men and forests. His hearers agreed that the idea was good, that it could be set in motion immediately, and that there was need for such labor in the forests. The Judge Advocate General, Colonel Rucker, assured the President that he could put the program into necessary and legal form for presentation to Congress by nine o'clock that night. At that hour the group reassembled, discussed the plan, expressed their views, and made several changes; and at ten-thirty the President placed "this new child of government" before a delegation of congressional leaders who awaited him.[25]

The original bill, introduced in Congress March 13, by Senator Costigan,[26] evoked much criticism.[27] It was redrafted in more general terms and passed upon by the President at a White House conference two days later. He informed the congressional leaders that he desired to have his unemployment relief measure enacted before the proposed two or three weeks recess was taken, and to have it financed by unexpended balances in the Treasury and not by bond issue. He also expressed his desire to have the conservation workers placed on reforestation projects in the national preserves near the large centers of population. The Forestry Service estimated that $150,000,000 could be wisely expended in the national forests annually.[28]

It was evident from the President's message to Congress on the "Relief of Unemployment" that the Civilian Conservation Corps was to be the first immediate step to meet the unprecedented conditions brought about by the depression. In this message he said:

> It is essential to our recovery program that measures immediately be enacted aimed at unemployment relief. A direct attack on this problem suggests three types of legislation.
>
> The first is the enrollment of workers now by the Federal Government for such public employment as can be quickly started and will not interfere with the demand for or the proper standards of normal employment.[29]

After explaining the second and third types of relief, namely, the grants to States for relief work, and the extension of "a broad public works labor-creating program," the President continued:

> The first of these measures which I have enumerated, however, can and should be immediately enacted. I purpose to create a Civilian Conservation Corps to be used in simple work, not interfering with normal employment, and confining itself to forestry, the prevention of soil erosion, flood control and similar projects.[30]

He then called attention to the definite and practical value of such work as a means of creating future national wealth as well as "through the prevention of great personal financial loss," stating that the work could be carried on by existing governmental machinery. He continued: "I estimate that 250,000[31] men can be given temporary employment by early summer if you will give me authority to proceed within the next two weeks."[32]

Next to the call for quick action was the unusual statement that he would ask for no new funds at that time, but would use unobligated funds, appropriated for public works.[33] The statement that "this enterprise is an established part of our national policy"[34] referred to the conservation of "previous natural resources," rather than to the permanency of the enterprise. Yet such a broad statement of policy leaves room for speculation as to the permanency of this or a similar program for the unemployed youth of the nation. One of the aims, and to the President the most important, was stated in his message as follows:

> More important, however, than the material gains will be the moral and spiritual value of such work. The overwhelming majority of unemployed Americans, who are now walking the streets and receiving private or public relief, would infinitely prefer to work. We can take a vast army of these unemployed out into healthful surroundings. We can eliminate to some extent at least the threat that enforced idleness brings to spiritual and moral stability. It is not a panacea for all the unemployment, but it is an essential step in this emergency.[35]

Immediately after the reading of the President's message on March 21, a bill coming down from him and prepared under his direction,[36] to carry out the principles of relief and conservation as given in the message, was introduced jointly in the Senate by Senators Robinson, of Arkansas, and Wagner of New York, and was referred to the Committee on Education and Labor.[37] An identical bill was introduced simultaneously in the House of Representatives by majority leader Byrnes, of Tennessee, and was referred to the Committee on Labor.[38] The bill, in its brevity, a characteristic of legislative proposals of the Administration, omitted many of the stipulations evolved during the study of the plan by Secretary Perkins and Senators Wagner, Costigan, and LaFollette.[39]

Fearing that the Administration bill might be changed in Committee unless those dealing with it had more definite ideas as to its purpose, scope and effects, a conference was held with the President,

at the request of Senator Walsh, presiding chairman of the Joint Hearings of the Senate and House committees on the measure.[40] This conference, held the night before the Joint Committee hearings began, included the Committee members and Secretaries Perkins, Dern, Ickes, and Wallace. Suggestions were made as to the rate of pay, use of unobligated public works funds for financing, placing the Army in charge of mobilization and operation of the camps, and enlarging the scope of the work to include the wiping out of the gypsy moth.[41]

Public Reaction to the Bill

Before the hearings of the Joint Committee of the Senate and the House had proceeded far, it was evident that the proposed bill would be radically changed. Opposition to its provisions as written came from friend and foe of the whole emergency relief program. As soon as the bill was presented Labor voiced its opposition through the President of the American Federation of Labor. President Green's chief concern was the military feature of the plan. He thought it would mean the "regimentation of labor" with a form of compulsory service under military control and army rates of wages. Such a plan, he feared, would awaken feelings of "grave apprehension in the hearts and minds of labor."[42] A. F. Whitney, President of the Brotherhood of Trainmen, in a letter to Donald Richberg, termed the program inadequate, vicious and weak. He said that it "would place government's endorsement upon poverty at a bare subsistance level."[43] It was evident from these and other criticisms that the critics had not followed the President in his development of the idea, and had formed hasty and unwarranted conclusions in regard to some of the proposals.

The late Major R. Y. Stuart, Chief of the United States Forest Service was the first witness to give his views to the Committee. He stated that there are 161,000,000 acres of national forest lands, the great bulk being in the Far West, and only 7,000,000 acres of national forest lands and some 15,000,000 acres of state owned and controlled lands lying east of the Mississippi River. He proposed an amendment to extend the scope of the work to private lands adjoining or near any public domain, because tree pests and fire hazards on such lands are unusually detrimental to the public forests. Only fifty-four per cent of the forest lands in the United States, he said, were under forest protection, and there was already in operation, although inadequately financed, a cooperative arrangement between the Federal Government and the various States in conservation work.[44] To this proposal Senator Walsh replied that the White House conferees had felt that such a plan might involve competition with private labor, a consequence which the Administration wished to avoid.[45]

Major Stuart then spoke of the relief feature of the proposed bill and compared it with the cooperative arrangements which the Forest Service had made with some of the States and counties.[46] In California the Service had operated some subsistence camps, the State or county furnishing the money to feed and clothe the men, and the Forest Service

furnishing them shelter in the woods for the preservation of which they were working. The stipened paid in the camps both of California and of some of the Lake States was not really considered compensation, as the men would receive it anyway under the relief provisions. According to Mr. Stuart, both the workers and those in charge of these subsistence camp programs felt that it was more helpful to furnish the men with something to do rather than to have them receive this relief in idleness.[47]

The Chief Forester suggested further that the mobilization and conditioning of the men could be more expeditiously and economically carried on by the Army, as the Forest Service had no facilities, especially in the East, for such service.[48] This suggestion brought up the question of where the men from the East would be sent, some members of the Committee fearing that the men would be sent from their home states to some distant section.[49] This query was answered by showing the possibilities of employment in the East on state forests, although approximately ninety-five per cent of the public domain, the national parks and forests, lies between the Rocky Mountain region and the Pacific Coast. Major Stuart stated that, if the bill were confined to work in the national forests alone, many would have to be transported to the West, and he would not advise this.[50] He wished rather to see the bill broadened to include privately owned lands where a public benefit is to be served in line with the policy followed in forest protection.[51]

In conclusion Major Stuart pointed out the possibilities of work in the national parks, the public domain, and other Federal and State owned property which would come within the plan. He showed the need for conservation work in the national forests, and stated that only $9,000,000 had been allowed for the 1933 improvement work, and $5,000,000 for that of 1934. He said that for the previous twelve months the Forest Service had had approximately 2,700 men in its employment, and that it had been necessary for them to move along at a very slow pace in their protective and administrative work. This statement brought up the question of trained supervisors for the proposed conservation corps, and the witness said that his Service had a considerable number of foresters, woodsmen, and others, skilled in the work, who could be used. Finally, he indicated to the Congressmen that those men already employed in the national forests would not be displaced as a result of the proposed plan.[52]

Secretary of Labor, Perkins, in her first appearance before a congressional committee, defended the proposed plan as a relief measure, saying: "The purpose of this legislation is to provide a practical form of work relief for about 200,000 or 250,000 men, aiming to give a form of work relief which can be accepted by self respecting citizens without any impairment of their personal dignity."[53]

The Secretary stated that there was a large group of unemployed men who had experienced great difficulty in securing adequate relief or in being able to shift for themselves. These young and unmarried

men had been left out of the aid of most relief agencies, because it had been felt that those with families should be taken care of first. Many of these people "who have been picking up a bit here and a bit there," had been forced "to a standard of living and type of behavior which they as good, sound Americans could not and did not endorse." It was from this group that most of the Civilian Conservation Corps would be recruited.[54]

When one of the Committee members intimated that the program was a "sweatshop" project, Secretary Perkins said: "I do not think any one should regard this project as in any way approaching that kind of work." Her reasons were: that the men would be those dependent upon relief and unemployed; that they would be covered by the Workmen's Compensation Act; that all necessary transportation would be furnished; that the men would get $30.00 per month whether they worked or not, which was not true of either skilled or unskilled laborers; that it was inconceivable that these men would work eight hours per day; and that recreational and educational activities would be carried on for their benefit.[55] The Secretary was then asked what she thought would be the effect upon private industry of a bill providing for a wage of a dollar a day, and if she did not think that every private industry would immediately say that it should be the prevailing rate throughout the United States. She replied tersely: "I do not think so, sir, because it does not make sense. . . . I think that ordinary self-protection would lead industrialists to recognize the need of paying a wage which will produce more purchasing power."[56]

Secretary Perkins thought it would be foolish to limit the plan to unmarried men, as the enrollment would be voluntary. She did not think the effect of the husband's absence on the family life would be very marked, as "family life in America on the whole is very sound." Instead she feared more danger from the unemployed man's becoming detached from his family by desertion, since he has to make his rounds to the relief agencies for his basket. Finally, she defended the physical examination of the enrollees on the ground that crippled or disabled men and those with heart disease could not endure the hardship. She did not think that the knowledge that a person was defective would make it impossible for him to get a job elsewhere, since certain kinds of defects might prevent him from doing forestry work, yet would not be a handicap in other occupations.[57]

There was serious objection in the Committee to that part of the bill which authorized the expenditure of such unobligated moneys in the Treasury, heretofore appropriated for public works, as might be necessary and available to finance the program.[58] Consequently, Director of the Budget Douglas, was called the second day of the hearings, and devoted most of his time to answering queries regarding this provision. The answer to the finance question, the Director said, had to do with the immediate future and with the next year or thereafter. The use of remaining unobligated public works funds for immediate financing was more advisable than asking Congress for an additional appro-

priation. In the meantime the Administration was working on the method by which coordinated relief and unemployment program could be financed. Mr. Douglas estimated the cost of the Emergency Conservation Work program at $250,000,000 for the first year, or about $20,000,000 per month. He assured the apprehensive Congressmen that it was contemplated to carry into the completed and coordinated unemployment and relief program public buildings and other public works projects, although the obligation of funds for such authorized and new projects was temporarily suspended.[59]

Another major public criticism centered around the Army's part in the conservation program, and General Douglas McArthur, Chief of Staff, was called to present its views. He said in part:

> The history of the uniformed service will show it [the Army] has not only the war-time mission of protection of law and order, but that it is a great emergency relief organization. It is upon that general basis and background that the Army, as I understand it, is to be utilized in the furtherance of the plan. . . . The various agencies scattered throughout the country will select those individuals who are to be enrolled. The Army will then collect these men in the various centers for the purpose of rehabilitation, for the purpose of fitting them with shelter, food, clothing, equipment, preparatory to being checked out to the various labor projects. The time . . . involved . . . will probably be not more than a month.[60]

Later he estimated that the cost of processing these men for a month would be about $35.00 each, including the necessary expenditure for their shelter, food, equipment and for the implements they would use in the forests, but not transportation or any cash allowance they might receive.[61]

When asked about physical or military training for the men, the General replied: "No military training whatsoever," and the only physical training would be "that which any well ordered community would go through in order to keep men in physical condition, so they will be prepared physically for the tasks which they are to undergo." The General, when asked if the bill was not similar to the original selective draft act of the World War, said: "As far as the Army is concerned, it is not similar."[62] Senator Black came to the defense of this phase of the bill, stating that he did "not think it would be possible to draw a constitutional bill in peace time where men would be conscripted for peace service."[63] General McArthur clarified the controversial question of discipline to which the enrollees would be subjected when he said, "when we have them, there will be such ordinary and decent requirements as any civilized community would have."[64]

Perhaps the most opposition to the bill came from President Green of the American Federation of Labor, who publicly criticized it as soon as it was offered in Congress. Before setting forth Labor's feelings in regard to it he expressed, first, his desire to approach the discussion, "in the broadest possible spirit," and secondly, his appreciation of the sincere and humane consideration of its sponsors, who had "a desire to

do something to relieve unemployment." He continued that he was in thorough accord with the aim of the bill, and the need to find employment for idle persons, where they can earn a decent living, saying: "But I do not believe . . . that it is necessary to regiment labor, to enlist it in an army, to place it under at least a form of military control, of military domination, in order to accomplish that purpose." Commenting upon the Army's part in the proposed plan, as given by General McArthur, Mr. Green said: "This is military control in itself. There is your regimentation, the very principles against which labor has always vigorously contended. It smacks as I see it, of fascism, of Hitlerism, of a form of sovietism."[65]

Mr. Green's second objection to the bill, which he considered as important as that of regimentation,[66] was in regard to the rate of pay.[67] He contended that the bill was not a relief measure in the full and complete sense of the term, because it set the amount of compensation that was to be paid for a day's work.[68] Later he pointed out that the relief feature was in the hospitalization, the food, the shelter, and the one dollar per day provisions.[69] The compensation rate, however, he feared, would be accepted as a standard rate of wages, and labor was opposed to such compensation, "not only because of the wage itself, but because of the depressing effect upon the wage standards established by labor in private industry."[70] Previously he had made it clear that he was not opposed to the reforestation project but to the rate of pay and the method proposed.[71]

Other objections voiced by the labor leader were: the use of unobligated funds, if it would delay public works construction, and the involuntary allotment of part of the enrollee's pay to his dependents.[72] Yet unlike most critics, Mr. Green gave the Committee his own idea of such a program. His recommendation was as follows:

> That a plan of employment of idle workers in reforestation and reclamation and other items covered by the bill be formulated providing for the payment of standard rates of pay under voluntary conditions of employment and that the element of 'forced labor' and military service be completely eliminated and stricken from the plan of employment to be followed.[73]

Other witnesses against the measure claimed that it discriminated against the negro;[74] that it was a camouflaged relief measure;[75] that it provided for the establishment of "forced labor," starvation wages and "the destruction of the families of American workers."[76] One witness even went so far as to object to placing men in camps other than those of their own selection. He contended that they would be forced to stay in the camps, and pay for them with their labor until discharged.[77] The hearing closed with Senator Walsh's reading a letter from a Philadelphian, who voiced his objection to the project by saying that "this plan for putting gangs of helots to work in the national forests is objectionable in many ways . . . it . . . will mean the wholesale ruination of the beauty of the forests."[78] After protesting against "the artificializing of what natural beauty this country still has," the

writer ended his plea by saying: "It is very sad when the juggernaut of bureaucracy is allowed to stamp it [the beauty of the forests] out, as will be done systematically and ruthlessly in the event that this 'unemployment relief bill' is passed."[79]

Further criticism of the proposed conservation measure came from the Joint Committee on Unemployment, of which Dr. John Dewey was Chairman. In a letter sent to President Roosevelt, while the bill was still in Committee, Dr. Dewey's Committee objected to associating the Army in any way with the project; the one dollar per day rate of pay; and the type of work proposed.[80] In place of the proposal, the Committee recommended a $5,000,000,000 slum clearance program, with the workers paid adequate wages.[81] The newspapers were, on the whole sympathetic to the proposal, as they were to most of the other New Deal projects. The New York **Times**, in an editorial crediting the President with the plan and praising his sincerity and enthusiasm for it, doubted if it would receive the zealous approval of Congress.[82] President Charles Lathrop Pack, of the American Tree Association, voiced the views of his association in a letter to President Green, of the American Federation of Labor. He said that he was astonished at opposition to a relief measure that would pay "a good American dollar" to thousands of jobless.[83] Dr. Charles Herty, a New York and Georgia scientist, hailed the program as one in which the President would find the machinery ready for the development of a reforestation program in the eleven Southern Pine Belt states. In these states there were 181,500,000 acres of cut over lands and forests on which one million men could be set to work at once cleaning underbrush, plowing fire strips and resetting pine seedlings.[84]

Congressional Reaction to the Bill

The many suggestions and objections to the Administration's unemployment reforestation bill, brought out in the Joint Committee Hearings and expressed by the public at large, showed that it would have to be radically changed to meet public approval. In order to expedite their reports the Senate Committee was called to meet in executive session the next day after the hearings, and the House Committee two days later.[85] Both Committees reported the bill favorably to their respective chambers on the latter date, the Senate report constituting an amendment in the nature of a substitute bill.[86] Chairman Walsh, when asked whether or not any written report on the measure had been submitted, replied that he did not think one necessary, since the bill itself was so simple and direct.[87]

In presenting the substitute bill to the Senate, Senator Walsh stated that the Committee, having heard commendation and objections, had agreed that the non-controversial features of the plan were "the opportunity to engage in forestation work as a means of relieving unemployment, and secondly, the use of unobligated funds." He continued that the substitute bill did nothing more than authorize the President to employ citizens from the ranks of the unemployed to go into the public

domain and carry on reforestation. This was to be done under such rules and regulations as the President might prescribe, without restriction, except that the employment be given to unemployed citizens. The Senator called attention to the fact that the bill, like most emergency legislation, gave the President permissive blanket authority.[88] The Committee agreed unanimously that this was the only proper way to deal with the problem, because Congress could not well work out the details arising with regard to transportation, conditions of employment, wage schedules, and the location of camps and hospitals.[89]

Senator Walsh asked the Senators, in considering the bill, to keep in mind three things, namely: emergency, relief work and unemployment.[90] In concluding his presentation he pointed out that the substitute bill was illustrative of the temporary emergency policy; that it would enable the President, who was of necessity given wide discretion both as to policy and administration, to act decisively, helpfully and speedily with unemployment relief; that the extent of the benefits of the project could not be estimated; that it should be an important aid in stimulating the resumption of trade and production; and that the Committee felt the President should be left free to determine how to handle the many difficult details in the light of circumstances as they might develop.[91]

The two days discussion of the Committee bill brought forth practically the same objections and suggestions as those given in the hearings. Judging from the discussion and amendments proposed and adopted, the main objection was the blanket authority given the President.[92] Yet Senator Borah, in speaking of granting this extraordinary power, said:

> This is the mildest form of delegation of power I have seen in the Senate since this session of Congress opened. I do not think there is anything in the pending bill that is unconstitutional. It may be that there is a question of policy involved, but we have been for a long time granting lump sums and telling the President to do so and so according to his judgment, and if I construe this bill correctly, that is what it does.[93]

Most of the dozen amendments proposed and adopted by the Senate were of a clarifying or permissive nature.[94] Those limiting the authority or discretion of the President were as follows: (a) By Senator Walcott, extending the work to "lands in private ownership," but only for the purpose of controlling forest fires and disease.[95] It will be remembered that such an amendment was suggested in the Committee Hearings by Chief Forester Stuart.[96] (b) By Senator Couzens, limiting the purchase of private lands to those which were contiguous to the property already in the ownership of the federal government.[97] There was perhaps more objection to this amendment than to any other proposed, especially from states which had no federal lands. Senator Connally, for example, feared that Texas would not get the benefits it was entitled to under the proposed relief measure since it had no federal lands.[98] (c) By Senator Hebert, limiting the Act to two years. This amendment was agreed to

without debate. The Senator desired that the limit be one year, but at the suggestion of Senator Walsh it was made two years.[99]

The House Committee on Labor accepted the Senate Committee's bill and filed majority and minority reports.[100] The former consisted of the President's message asking for the bill; statements as to why the substitute bill was reported; and a letter from the President of the American Federation of Labor, expressing his approval of the substitute measure. It stated, furthermore, that President Roosevelt had given his approval of the reported bill and that it was entirely satisfactory. Chairman Connery gave three reasons why the minority could not recommend the adoption of the relief bill. They were: "That these workers will be regimented and physically examined; that under the guise of utilizing unskilled . . . labor, the cash allowance will not exceed $1 per day; that the American public will know that . . . Congress . . . fully realized that these men would be regimented in some manner and that they were to receive for their labor not more than $1. per day."[101]

The minority report likewise quoted objections to the original bill as brought out in the hearings, especially in connection with the testimonies of Director Douglas, General McArthur and President Green. Finally, the report gave the Connery amendment to the bill providing for no regimentation of labor; voluntary enrollment for periods of two months; cash allowances of $80.00 for married men or those with dependents and $50.00 per month for single men; the work to be strictly reforestation; and the continuance of all public works authorized and appropriated for.[102]

Since Chairman Connery was against the reported bill Mr. Ramspeck, of the Committee, presented the amended Senate bill, which had passed that body the day before.[103] The House resolved itself into the Committee of the Whole House on the State of the Union, and majority leader Byrnes, author of the original House Bill 3905, led the argument for the defense.[104] The arguments for and against the measure were similar to those given in the Hearings and in the Senate debate as noted above.[105] Only three[106] of the eighteen[107] amendments proposed in the House were adopted. One by Mr. DePriest prevented discrimination against the Negro.[108] This amendment, as noted elsewhere, was proposed in the Committee hearings,[109] but was not included in the substitute bill. Representative Blanton, of Texas, objected to the DePriest amendment on the ground that it was out of order. The chair overruled the objection and the amendment was agreed to by a vote of one hundred and seventy-nine to seventy-one.[110] The second amendment was offered by Mr. Byrnes[111] at the request of the President. It changed the wording regarding the purchase, donation, etc., of real property in section two of the Senate bill. The third amendment proposed by Mr. Ramspeck[112] merely restored section four, which had been thrown out on a point of order.

After the Committee of the Whole House had risen and reported

the bill back to the House with the three amendments, and these had been agreed to, Mr. Connery made a motion to recommit the bill to the Committee on Labor with instructions to report it back to the House with his bill inserted after the enacting clause as an amendment.[113] His motion was rejected and the amended Senate substitute bill was passed with the yeas and nays refused.[114]

The next day the Senate accepted the House amendments,[115] and after the House had authorized the Speaker to sign the bill notwithstanding the adjournment or recess of that body,[116] it was signed by Speaker Rainey and Vice President Garner[117] and presented to President Roosevelt the following day.[118] The President signed his emergency conservation work measure immediately in the presence of Senator Walsh and Representative Ramspeck, who had piloted it through Congress, and representatives of the American Forestry Association. In signing, he said: "This law will not only relieve unemployment but will also promote a needed activity in this country."[119]

Summary of the Statute

An analysis of the Emergency Conservation Work statute shows that the whole theory of the plan is, as so ably expressed by Senator Walsh, "that we need speed, we need some one with direct authority to act quickly, and we need some one who will try to apply the authority delegated in a helpful way in reducing unemployment."[120] In spite of the sundry amendments added by Congress the statute is more of a permissive act than the original draft. It is based on the principle that the great public domain of the nation provides vast opportunities for employment. The President is given blanket authority to go into that domain and use it at his discretion to partially relieve the unemployment situation, and thereby improve the economic and social conditions of the nation.

Section one of the statute clearly states its purpose: to relieve unemployment, provide for the restoration of the nation's depleted natural resources, and to advance an orderly program of public works. In order to do this the President is authorized, "under such rules and regulations as he may prescribe," to provide for employing unemployed citizens, regardless of "race, color or creed," in the carrying on of work of a public nature in connection with forestation on national and state lands "suitable for timber production;" prevention of forest fires, floods and soil erosion; plant pests and disease control; the construction, maintenance, or repair of paths, trails and fire lanes, in the national forests and park; and such other work on the public domain and Government reservations as the President deems desirable. He may, in his discretion, extend the provisions of the statute to lands of counties, municipalities, and private owners, but only for the purpose of preventing and controlling of floods, forest fires, and tree diseases and pests. The President is further authorized to provide subsistence, clothing, housing, medical care, hospitalization, and cash allowances for the enrollees. He may also provide them with transportation to and

from the place of enrollment.[121] The Forest Products Laboratory is aided in its investigations and research by the allocation of funds from the Emergency Conservation Work program.[122]

Section two of the statute authorized the President to enter into such agreements with the states as may be necessary for utilizing existing state administrative agencies to carry out the provisions of the act. He may acquire real property by condemnation, donation, purchase, or otherwise, without the consent of the states so concerned. Section three merely makes the Federal employees' compensation laws applicable to the enrollees. Section four gives authority to use unobligated moneys from appropriations already made for public works (except for projects already or about to be constructed, or already allocated), to carry on the work. Section five is a "rider" to the Committee bill and applies to an Act approved July 21, 1932, entitled "An Act to relieve destitution," and so forth, and does not concern the emergency conservation work project. Section six, as mentioned before, is the amendment of Senator Hebert limiting the Act to two years from date of passage and no longer.[123]

A comparison of the enacted emergency conservation work measure with the original bill shows that it gives broader discretionary power and is more in line with the trend of emergency legislation. The original bill restricted the selection of the men "as nearly as possible in proportion to the unemployment existing in the several states," limited the enrollment to one year, set the rate of pay "not to exceed $30.00 per month," and provided for the giving of an involuntary allotment to the enrollees' dependents.[124] On the other hand the statute placed no restrictions upon the President except that the employment must be given to unemployed citizens regardless of race, creed or color. The statute also leaves out such other controversial questions as limiting the work to single men; fixing of wages of technical workers according to locality; the kind of camps and form of discipline; and the matter of pensions. Instead, it gives the President the responsibility in the making of regulations concerning the conditions of employment, the selection of the enrollees; the public domain upon which they will work, and the nature and character of the work to be done.[125]

Organization of the Program

The emergency conservation work statute clothed the President with blanket authority to arrange for the establishment of a nation-wide chain of forest camps, its immediate objective being the relief of distress among the jobless and their dependents; the accomplishment of useful worthwhile work in the public forests, parks and reservations; the rehabilitation of men whose health and morale had reached a low ebb during the depression; and the reduction of overtaxed relief agencies through the allotment of part of the cash allowances of the men to their dependents. Contrary to previous legislation which designated the departments or agencies to be used in carrying out its mandate, Congress authorized the President to utilize such existing departments or agencies as he might designate to carry out his "pet project."[126]

The President lost no time in setting up the overhead administrative machinery of the Civilian Conservation Corps. On the 5th of April he created[127] the Emergency Conservation Work organization, with Robert Fechner, a former lecturer on labor questions at Harvard and Dartmouth colleges,[128] as Director. Although the terms of his appointment made the Director responsible for carrying out the provisions of the Conservation Act his work is that of general supervisory control.[129] Upon appointment, Director Fechner laid down the general policies guiding the establishment and operation of the camps.[130]

An advisory council, including representatives from each of the four executive departments designated to aid in carrying out the program, was set up to cooperate with the Director in the establishment and operation of the conservation camps.[131] The Secretary of Agriculture appointed Major R. Y. Stuart, Chief of the Forest Service; the Secretary of the Interior, Horace M. Albright, Director of National Parks, Buildings and Reservations; the Secretary of Labor, W. Frank Persons, Director of the United States Employment Service; and the Secretary of War, Colonel Duncan K. Major, Jr., of the General Staff.[132]

The Department of Labor, acting through designated State Directors of Selection was chosen to select the experienced woodsmen and the enrollees from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, or Juniors, exclusive of Indians and Veterans. The Indians and some non-Indians on the reservations are selected and enrolled by the Bureau of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior, while the Veterans are selected by the regional managers of the Veterans' Administration.[133] The conservation workers in Alaska and Puerto Rico are selected through the Forest Service and those in Hawaii by the National Park Service.[134]

The War Department, functioning through the Corps Area Commanders and the liaison officers at Corps Area headquarters, enrolls, assigns, replaces, and conditions all the enrollees of the Civilian Conservation Corps proper. It also has charge of camp operations, recreational and welfare activities, and the disbursing and accounting work in these camps, while the educational training is under the general supervision of the Department of the Interior.[135] The work projects are under the direction of the Agriculture, the Interior and War departments. The Department of Agriculture, operating through the Forest Service, plans and supervises the conservation work on national forests, including Alaska, Puerto Rico, Oregon and California railroad land grant; executes camp projects for the Navy on naval reservations and for the Tennessee Valley Authority; and supervises the planning and execution of forestry and erosion control work projects on state and private lands. The Department also carries on several projects through the Bureau of Animal Industry and the Bureau of Biological Survey. The Department of the Interior, through the National Park Service, the Office of Indian Affairs, the General Land Office, the Bureau of Reclamation and the Soil Erosion Services is responsible for the technical administrative supervision of conservation work on lands under its control. It also

supervises the work in state, county, and metropolitan parks; and erosion control work on private lands under the Soil Erosion Service. The War Department, acting through the Office of Chief of Engineers, operates the war veterans' camps engaged in flood control work. The Department also supervises the work projects on military reservations.[136]

The selection of the camp sites was naturally given to these three Departments since they had to be located near suitable conservation projects. It has been the policy of the camp selecting agencies to locate as many of the men as possible on work projects within their home states.[137] This, however, could not be done during the first and second camp periods when site selection depended largely upon the supply of work of the type authorized by the reforestation act.[138] The states with large forested areas, especially California, were alloted more camps than they normally would have had,[139] in as much as most of the densely populated states were unable to furnish projects for their quotas.

Mobilization of the C. C. C.

In order to carry out the President's wish to have 250,000 men at work in the nation's forests by early summer,[140] the various agencies selected to administer the program did not wait until the Emergency Conservation Work legislation was passed before going to work. The Forest Service in cooperation with other agencies, in response to Senate Resolution 175, dated March 10, 1932, had just completed an intensive study of the forest situation in the United States,[141] and, therefore, was ready to begin work on its part of the program. The project supervising agencies had until the middle of July to complete their plans and get their administrative machinery in full working order, since the Civilian Conservation Corps would have to be selected and conditioned before the project work could begin. On the other hand, the Labor and War departments had to make arrangements to select, enroll and condition the men at once.

On the 3rd of April the Persident announced that he wanted the first men enrolled by the sixth of that month. This assignment called for immediate action on the part of the Department of Labor. Its representative on the Advisory Council, W. Frank Persons, realized that he had no time to set up a nationwide organization of his own for the selection of 250,000 men from among all who might apply.[142] Moreover, he had no desire to form such an organization but preferred to use organizations already familiar with the unemployed youth in the particular localities and well qualified to choose the type of men desired. With only three days in which to organize these selecting agencies so they could begin the enrollment of the first 25,000 on April 6, Mr. Persons invited the representatives of the various relief agencies of the seventeen largest cities in the country to meet with him in Washington.[143]

Represntives of the Agriculture, the Interior and War departments

and from the Director's Office also participated in this meeting. Detailed discussion of the Civilian Conservation Corps program was held and visiting representatives were asked to take over the job of selecting the initial group of enrollees. Instructions were immediately wired to the local welfare agencies of the representatives' twelve states, and selection of the men began.[144] The selecting organization was perfected by the designation of a State director of selection to act as the representative of the Department of Labor in each State.[145] The entire quota of 250,000 men was selected within thirty days, and from that time on additional men were furnished for replacements as fast as the Army Corps Area commanders notified the selecting agencies that additional workers were needed.[146]

The biggest job of the whole Emergency Conservation Work program was given to the Army. To establish thirteen hundred and thirty forest camps on a three thousand mile front from the Atlantic to the Pacific, distributed in depth from Canada to Mexico, and occupying every state in the Union except Delaware, and to move 55,000 of the men a distance of over 2,000 miles from the Atlantic seaboard to the Rockies and the Sierras, would take careful planning and enormous effort, even though there should be no administrative or legislative delay.[147] It was not necessary to wait until the legislation was passed before going to work. In fact, the Army had made plans for a similar program before the New Deal came into being.[148]

As early as January 10, 1933, Senator Couzens introduced a bill in Congress to provide for the sheltering and feeding of indigent, transient youths by the Army.[149] Later it took definite form as an amendment to the Army Appropriation Bill and called for the caring for some 88,000 young men as a charity measure, but it failed to become a law.[150] Nevertheless, the War Department, aware of the Couzens scheme, immediately made plans to carry out the proposal in case it became a law. With the failure of its adoption the Army merely laid its plans away against possible future use.[151] The occasion came when the President proposed his Civilian Conservation Corps idea at the White House Conference on the 9th of March.[152] Under orders from the Commander-in-chief, the Chief of Staff on the same date requested the preparation of regulations for the reception, organization and care of the enrollees.[153]

By the 24th of March, while the Joint Committee of Congress was still holding hearings on the Emergency Conservation Work bill, "the General Staff had prepared in draft form, complete regulations governing the administration and supply of the . . . Corps ready for issue in the field." They defined the Army's task, its relation to the other cooperating agencies in the program, and set up probable quotas for the various Army Corps Areas, estimating unit costs covering clothing, medical attention, shelter, subsistence, supervision, welfare, equipment for project work, and transportation to and from camp. The following day secret radio messages outlining the field work of the Army in the new program were sent to the Corps Area Commanders.[154] In this

manner, except for last minute modifications, the Army was prepared for its work before the discussion of its authority began in Congress.

It has already been pointed out that the conservation bill as finally passed left most of the details to the discretion of the President. Especially did this apply to the relationships that would obtain between the various departments in charge of the program. The executive order establishing these relationships was drafted while the bill was still in Committee, but was, of course, modified, as were the Army regulations, to coordinate them with the plans of the other departments concerned, before final passage of the measure. The Director's approval of the War Department's regulations governing its part in the administration of the emergency conservation program and agreement with the Department of Labor in the matter of selection and enrollment of the men was secured by the 5th of April. On that date all Corps Area Commanders again received orders assigning their duties and directing them to enroll the first contingents the next day.[155] The Third Corps Area selected the first man in the so called "peace time army" on the anniversary of the Nation's entrance into the World War.[156] Two days later, the actual enrollment, consisting of Juniors and the local experienced woodsmen, was 1,366.[157]

A month later there was an actual enrollment of only 50,347 men.[158] This delay called for quick action if the President's objective was to be reached. On May 12, after enabling legislation had been enacted, the President approved a program that authorized an enrollment of 274,375 and would place 250,000 men at work in the forests by the first of July. To accomplish this it was necessary that the full number of men be on hand by the seventh of June; that two weeks must be allowed for their reception and conditioning, and one week for transportation and establishment in camp; that some additional 222,000 men, at an average daily rate of 8,540 had to be enrolled and organized; that around 1,200 more company units had to be organized and equipped at the rate of twenty-seven per day; that approximately 1,300 work camps had to be set up at the rate of twenty-six per day; and that 55,000 of the men had to be transported a distance of 2,000 miles.[159]

The four cooperating agencies worked at top speed in order to carry out to the letter the President's instructions. The Forest Service and the National Park Service rushed to completion a two year forest work program which normally would have been spread over a ten year period.[160] Their immediate work in order to get the program under way was to select from a thousand to fifteen hundred of these previously planned work projects, scattered throughout the most inaccessible portions of the country, suitable in character and location for the program. This done, the next step was the selection of suitable camp locations for the company units of inexperienced youths who were to work these forestry projects. After the sites are selected they are given a number, the letter symbols indicating the type of camp and the numbers the rank in point of selection. Thus S-51, stands for a project on a State Forest; F, or NF-4, on National Forest; P-68, on Private Land; E-5,

Erosion Camp; NP-6, National Park; and SP-17, State Park.[161] These Services, furthermore, had the task of selecting, procuring and distributing tools, machines, trucks, for each project. Finally, it was necessary to select, assign, and instruct suitable supervisory men with highly specialized knowledge of the work as well as the ability to lead.

The first camp was established in the George Washington National Forest, at Edinburg, Virginia, April 17, 1933.[162] It received the Federal Civilian Conservation Corps number of F-1, and was appropriately named Camp Roosevelt. The Company, Number 322, was organized at Fort Washington, Maryland. Practically one-third of its members were from Virginia and the rest from the District of Columbia. The men, all white, were from the eighteen to twenty-five year old group.[163] By April 19, one hundred and seven camps located in regions Seven and Nine of the national Forest Service had been approved.[164] A month later one thousand camps had been selected, although only fifty-two had actually been established. The selected camps, dotting every section of the United States, included sixteen at military posts, six hundred and fifty-five in national forests, sixty-three in National Parks, one hundred and twenty-four in State Parks and one hundred and forty-two on private lands. One-half of the established camps were in the Third Corps Area, twelve in the Sixth, six in the Eighth, five in the Ninth, two in the Seventh, and one in the First. There were none in the Second, Fourth or Fifth Corps Areas.[165]

By June 20, thirteen hundred and thirty forest camps had been established.[166] At the end of the first camp period there were fifteen hundred and twenty camps in operation. Twelve hundred and sixty eight of these, including five in Puerto Rico and one in Alaska, were established by the various Services of the Department of Agriculture; two hundred and forty-three by the Department of the Interior; and nine by the War Department.[167]

During the second period the total number of camps was increased to fifteen hundred and twenty-eight by the addition of eight Indian camps, increasing their number to seventy-five. The number in Alaska was increased to three and that of Puerto Rico to six. The total number of camps given does not include those established by the Department of the Interior in Hawaii in this period. Here the work was distributed over four of the Hawaiian Islands, and counted on the company quota basis the number of camps would be six, bringing the total number of work camps for the second period up to fifteen hundred and thirty-four.[168] Counting each company of approximately two hundred men as a camp, the grand total of camps for the second period was 1,548 instead of 1,534. The authorized quota of 1,468 for the Civilian Conservation Corps proper was retained by the establishment of new camps for those abandoned on account of climatic conditions.[169]

The fifteen hundred and thirty-four camps were divided as follows: Forest Service, 1,140, a decrease of one hundred and twenty-five under the first camp period; Biological Survey, two, a decrease of one; Bureau

of Animal Industry, one; National Parks, sixty-seven, a decrease of three; State Parks, two hundred and thirty-nine, an increase of one hundred and thirty-seven; Bureau of Indian Affairs, seventy-five, an increase of eight; and the War Department, ten, an increase of one. With the establishment of two camps in Delaware every State in the Union, the District of Columbia, and each of the principal outlying possessions had one or more camps. There was also a marked decrease of camps in the Ninth Corps Area and an increase in the number east of the Rocky Mountains.[170] This shift from West to East was made possible to a large extent by the acquiring of nearly half a million acres of land through gift and purchase by the states for state parks and forests[171] and the acquisition of some half million acres of forest-land, situated in twenty-three of the states east of the Great Plains, by the federal government,[172] and the establishment of camps thereon.[173] During the first camp period only twenty-six states had state park camps while in the second period this number was thirty-two.[174]

In the third period the total number of camps jumped from 1,534 to 1,731. They were divided as follows: Forest Service, 1,143, an increase of three over the previous period; Biological Survey, three, an increase of one; Bureau of Animal Industry, one; National Parks and Monuments, one hundred and nine, an increase of forty-two; State Parks, three hundred and twenty-five, an increase of eighty-six; Office of Indian Affairs, seventy-seven, an increase of two; General Land Office, one; Bureau of Reclamations, seven; Soil Erosion Service, thirty-four; Office of Chief of Engineers, twenty-two, a decrease of six; War Department's other project work, nine, an increase of two. The large increase in the total number of camps for the third period was due primarily to the establishment of one hundred and seventy-one drought relief camps. Ninety of these camps were established by the Forest Service, fifty-two by the State Park Work organization and the remainder by the other project administration agencies of the Interior and War departments.[175]

The total number of camps in operation during the fourth and final period of the initial program was 1,740.[176] They were divided as follows: Civilian Conservation Corps camps, 1,640; Indian group camps, eighty-five; and territorial possession camps, fifteen.[177] Several hundred were transferred to new locations or relocated on old sites. The distribution of the camps among the various project supervising services was practically the same as in the previous period. Every State, the District of Columbia, and the principal territorial possessions had one or more camps. The conservation work in the Virgin Islands was authorized during this period. It is under the supervision of the National Park Service.[178]

After receiving the President's program calling for quick action in the establishment of the conservation work, the Department of Labor completed the selection of its quota of 274,375 men practically ahead of schedule.[179] It also selected replacements for each camp and mid-camp period as they were needed.[180] The record of the selection of the

Indians by the Office of Indian Affairs was equally as good, even though actual enrollment was deferred from the 14th of April to about June 23, 1933.[181] The selection of the war veterans for the first period continued without interruption from June 12, until its completion July 31, when the enrollment reached 26,838, including 2,042 Bonus Marchers enrolled at Fort Hunt.[182]

The State quotas of all men selected for the first camp period, exclusive of those assigned to territorial possessions, were 314,236. Of this number 239,125 were Juniors, 35,250 experienced woodsmen, 25,000 veterans, and 14, 861 Indians.[183] The quotas for the second camp period remained the same as the first, except that of the Veterans, which was increased to 28,225. This increase added to the 2,377 quotas of Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico provided for the selection of 319,838 men for conservation work during the second six months of the program.[184] During the third camp period the authorized number was increased to 369,838 by the additional 45,000 Juniors and 5,000 Veterans alloted to twenty-two drought stricken states.[185] The authorized strength for the fourth and final period of the initial program was 371,922. This number was divided as follows: 290,000 Juniors, 33,225 Veterans, 30,000 local experienced woodsmen, 14,400 Indians, and 4,297 residents of Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands.[186]

In order to keep the enrollment of camps near their authorized strength, a system of replacements, which provides for the filling of all vacancies every three months, was inaugurated.[187] Replacements since the close of the first camp period have been as follows: October and November, 1933, 125,000 to take the places of the summer camp enrollees who were discharged at or prior to the end of the first camp period;[188] January, 1934, 25,000 authorized to bring the strength of each camp to two hundred men;[189] April and May 1934, 100,000 to replace the men voluntarily discharged prior to the opening of the third camp period on the 1st of April;[190] July, 1934, 110,000 replacements for approximately 70,000 "full service" men automatically discharged because of the one-year service limit, and 40,000 who had dropped out to accept employment or for other reasons;[191] October, 1934, approximately 100,000 to bring the forest camps to their authorized strength of 369,838;[192] and January, 1935, 68,000 to fill vacancies which occurred during the first part of the fourth period.[193]

The War Department broke all American mobilization records in the first three months of the reforestation program. During that time the Army enrolled, conditioned, and transported to camps more men than it mobilized during the first three months of America's participation in the World War.[194] By May 27, 1933, with the addition of the first contingent of Veterans, the enrollment had exceeded 154,000 men, and by the first of July it had surpassed the objective of 250,000 by approximately 29,500. The peak of the enrollment for the first camp period was reached on July 22, when it stood at 301,230. Of this number 269,339 were Juniors and experienced Woodsmen; 26,371 Veterans, and 5,520 Indians.[195] The latter group, of course, was enrolled by the Office

of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior.[196] The total does not include about 10,000 in the Army administrative personnel,[197] and approximately 15,000 of the project personnel.[198]

By the last month of the first camp period the enrollment had dropped, from its high point in July, to 248,740. The workers were divided as follows: Forest Service, 201,806; National Park Service, 28,717; Office of Indian Affairs, 13,069; Office of Chief of Engineers, 3,554; Bureau of Biological Survey, 489; General Land Office, 193; and territorial possessions, 912. Those enrolled in the territorial possessions, of course, were under the supervision of the Forest Service or the National Park Service. The average daily numbers employed on field work was 182,946 and for camp duties 62,964.[199]

The enrolled men were permitted to re-enroll for the second six month period and 175,000 took advantage of this privilege. Replacements were added from time to time, and a slight increase in the Veterans' quota and enrollment in Hawaii was authorized. The peak enrollment for this period was reached on January 15, 1934, when it stood at 305,857.[200] By the end of the period there was a considerable drop in the enrollment, especially in the Civilian Conservation Corps proper, which dropped from 289,184 in January to 211,747.[201]

The highest enrollment for the third period was on August 14, 1934, when it reached 359,070. This large increase over the second period was due primarily to the 50,000 drought relief enrollment.[202] The peak enrollment for the fourth camp period was reached on October 30, 1934, it totaled 361,786 men.[203] This number included 282,273 Juniors, 34,628 experienced woodsmen, 32,802 Veterans, and 12,083 Indians. In addition to the enrolled men there were 24,212, including approximately 18,000 superintendents and foremen, members of the project supervisory personnel; 5,939 Army reserve officers assigned to camp administration; and 1,109 educational advisors employed in camp and project administration.[204]

Conclusion

The history of the development of the Emergency Conservation Work program shows that the Civilian Conservation Corps idea was not proposed without careful thought; that due consideration was given to the consequences of such a program; and the project was launched after careful planning by the several cooperating agencies; and that its mobilizations progressed in record-breaking fashion. It also shows that the selection of the project and camp sites, and the selection, enrollment and conditioning of the large forest army, although important and indispensible, were only preliminary to "the advancement of an orderly program of useful public works." The chief problems were the transportation of this vast army of raw recruits to the camp sites, many of which were anything but desirable in their natural condition; the laying out of small villages and pitching tents or building barracks thereon; the administration of the camps, and the supervision of the work projects. These problems come within the administrative rather than the historical field and will be considered in detail in the next two chapters, as will the problems of selection of work projects and camp sites, and the selection, enrollment and conditioning of the men.

CHAPTER II

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

The E. C. W. Organization

The initial emergency conservation work act practically gave President Roosevelt a free hand in the organization and operation of his conservation program. This was especially true of the organization, since the law merely authorized him to "utilize such existing departments or agencies as he may designate" to carry out his program.[1] It was evident from the first that the project would not and could not be given to any one of the ten executive departments for administration, because its work logically involves more than one of them. It was also evident that the President would set up an overhead organization which would be as nearly as possible under his guidance, since the program was his own idea, and he had a personal as well as official interest in its success.

Directly or indirectly, there are ten governmental agencies cooperating in the conservation work program. This number includes seven of the ten executive departments, one existing independent establishment, and two newly created ones.[2] Of the seven departments, namely, the Agriculture, the Commerce, the Interior, Labor, Navy, Treasury and War, the work of the Commerce, Treasury and Navy departments is the least important. The first two, operating through the Bureau of the Census and the Bureau of the Public Health Service respectively, merely give information at the request of the other cooperating agencies. The Department of the Navy's work is limited to advisory and conjunctional services with the administrative agencies, and to their work upon naval reservations. The work of the existing Veterans' Administration is the selection of war veterans for conservation camps. The newly created Tennessee Valley Authority cooperates through advisory services in connection with the conservation camps within its jurisdiction.[3] The first and most important of the several cooperating agencies set up is the office of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work, established to carry out the provisions of the Conservation Work Act.[4]

The act vested the President with responsibility for consummation of the conservation work program.[5] It was, therefore, necessary that he authorize an administrative organization in which the final authority would rest in him, yet at the same time be as decentralized as possible. The office of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work is the focal point of such an organization. The President made the Director directly responsible for the emergency conservation work.[6] Under the President's direction the Director was given full authority and power to do or cause to be done everything in connection with the operation of the program.[7] He was empowered, within certain limitations, to establish an office in Washington and to employ the necessary civilian personnel for the efficient and economical discharge of his duties.[8]

The work of the Director of the emergency conservation program is of a supervisory nature and is extended and limited at the discretion of the President. Most of it is by direction of the President and consists in the issuance of regulations for the carrying out of such phases of the program as welfare of the enrollees,[9] discipline, pay and allowances of the leaders, and enrollment of the veterans.[10] In other cases the Director has final authority without reference to the President; as, for example, in the approval of the location of conservation camps and the conduct of the project work.[11]

The office personnel of the Director was chosen according to an order of the President set forth early in the development of the program. Civilian and military personnel in the service of the government was to be utilized as much as possible before additional employees were secured. These were to be chosen without regard to civil service,[12] but most of them have civil service status.[13] Weekly reports of all appointments are made to the President. The salaries of these employees are fixed by the Director and the heads of the cooperating departments, subject to the approval of the President.[14] All such salaries, however, were subject to the fifteen per cent reduction prescribed by the Economy Act of March 20, 1933.[15] A later executive order authorized the fixing of the rates of pay for officers and employees in the service at amounts prescribed in the Emergency Agencies salary standardization schedule, in accordance with the duties and responsibilities of the positions occupied by them.[16]

Besides the Secretary to the Director, who has supervision over the employees of his office, there are three assistant directors. First, the Executive Assistant, who is charged with the responsibility of enforcing the Director's rules and regulations which govern the activities of all the coordinating agencies of the conservation program. He also represents the Director during his absence. Second, the Administrative Assistant, who has charge of the management and control of all activities authorized by the Director and carried on by the several cooperating agencies. He advises the Director on administrative matters and directs the preparation of reports and special correspondence, and assigns, approves and acts upon matters delegated to him by the Director. Third, a Personal Assistant, who has charge of press relations, publicity, and general information on emergency conservation work activities.[17] He is especially interested in the dissemination of information and statistical data concerning the enrolled personnel and the project work. Recently his title has been changed to that of Director of Publicity.[18] There are also two special assistants, one advises the Director on procurement of supplies and equipment needed by all the cooperating agencies, the other has charge of investigations relating to camp activities, the promotion of safety with respect to the lives and health of the enrollees, and special correspondence. There is also a special counsel who gives legal advice and opinions on emergency conservation matters.[19]

The Chief Clerk is the procurement officer, the custodian of property and supplies, and has charge of the office personnel and organiza-

tion records and reports as well as the estimates and obligations of funds for the Director's office, payroll vouchers, routine correspondence, transportation requests and general supervision of mail and files section. The Chief File Clerk receives and disburses mail, and miscellaneous papers and reports, and supervises the messengers. The Chief of Finance, or fiscal agent, receives, allocates, expends and accounts for all emergency conservation work funds as directed by the Director.[20]

The Emergency Conservation Work organization also has four divisions in its overhead organization. They are the Statistical, the Information, the Investigation and Correspondence, and the Safety divisions. The first two are under the immediate jurisdiction of the Director of Publicity and the other two are under the supervision of the special assistant in charge of investigations relating to camp activities, etc.[21] The Statistical Division is in charge of a chief statistician who verifies and compiles statistical data submitted by the cooperating conservation work agencies. The Division edits and has immediate supervision of the Director's reports to the President. The Information Division prepares and distributes information on all Civilian Conservation Corps activities, and coordinates the conservation work in all cooperative agencies. The Investigation and Correspondence Division prepares plans for inspection of the camps, receives inspectors' reports, prepares correspondence thereon and has charge of the general office correspondence. A Safety Engineer has charge of the Safety Division which directs the safety program conducted through committees in the camps. Under the direction of the Director, he sets up rules and regulations governing safety in the camps and on work projects. In addition to the personnel of the office of the Director of Emergency Conservation Work mentioned, the Washington office has various secretaries, stenographers, clerks, messengers and a chauffeur, making an average number of employees of from forty to fifty.[22]

The field organization of the Director's office includes liaison officers, special investigators and special inspectors. There is one liaison officer in each of the nine Army Corps Area headquarters to help in the assignment of men requested by the authorized representatives of the Forest and Park services. Liaison officers were first appointed by the Forest Service and later by the Director of the Conservation program.[23] Their duties are to coordinate the activities of the federal departments concerned with the conservation project. The special investigators visit the camps and check up on conditions there by contacting the camp commanders and the officers in charge of the work in the woods. The duties of the special inspectors include the inspection of the various work projects and checking the work done to see if it conforms with the law and the purpose of the project. These investigators and inspectors also act as advisors to the project officials on problems pertaining to the emergency conservation work.[24]

In order to utilize the existing services and agencies to carry out the conservation work program the President authorized the setting up

of an Advisory Council to the Director. It consists of a representative from each of the four executive departments directly concerned with the work, namely, the Agriculture, the Interior, Labor and War departments.[25] The Council acts as a coordinating agency for the services connected with the program. Its function is to cooperate with the Director in the establishment and operation of the conservation camps. The duties of the members of the Council consist in examining the problems confronting their services and offering solutions of them to the Director.

Selection of the Enrollees

The immediate objective of the emergency conservation work program was the relief of unemployment. It was therefore logical to place the registration and selection of most of the men in the hands of the Department of Labor. This department does not select the men itself but establishes the general policies and standards and designates State agencies to act as its representatives. The Department's representative on the Advisory Council has charge of the selection of the men from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, called Juniors. He functions through State selecting agencies, usually the unemployment relief organizations and state boards of public welfare.[26] At the head of the State selecting agency is generally a member of the unemployment relief organization's administrative division and he is called Director of the Civilian Conservation Corps.[27]

The registration, selection and enrollment of a certain percentage of local experienced woodsmen for each camp, also in charge of the Department of Labor, has been delegated by the State selection agencies to the State foresters, the National Forest Service, and the National Park Service, which act as agents of the Department of Labor in their respective camps.[28] The task of selecting the war veterans was given to the Veterans' Administration. This is accomplished by its regional officers, the contacts being established in person and by mail.[29] Superintendents of all Indian reservations are charged with the responsibility of selecting the Indians and some non-Indians on the reservations.[30] The selection of the enrollees for the camps in Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands is in the hands of the department in charge of the work in these territories and insular possessions.[31]

The quotas of all men selected for emergency conservation work are divided into five groups, namely, local Experienced Woodsmen, Juniors, Veterans, Indians, and Territorial enrollees. The experienced men's quota consists of 10,875 selected on the basis of population and 24,375 selected on the basis of men available near the work projects. States assigned quotas on the basis of population were not included in the assignment of men according to availability. The states of Kansas and North Dakota, together with the District of Columbia did not receive quotas on either basis. Iowa received twenty-five, the smallest number of experienced men on the basis of population, and New York, 2,500, the largest. Only fifteen states received quotas on the basis of men available near work projects, with Nevada receiving five hundred,

the smallest number, and California 4,500, the largest.[32]

The largest quota is the original Junior group and it is based upon population. Its quotas for the several states vary from three hundred for Nevada to 23,250 for New York.[33] The allotment of 45,000 Junior enrollees to twenty-two drought stricken states during the summer of 1934 increased the original Junior group quota to 284,125.[34] In this allotment Illinois received 6,861, the largest number, and Oregon, thirty, the smallest.[35] The original Veterans' quota of 25,000 was also based upon population, and varied from twenty-five for Nevada to 2,575 for New York.[36] In the drought allotment the Veterans' quota was increased to 33,225 by the assignment of 5,000 veterans to the drought stricken states. Illinois again received the largest number and Oregon the smallest, seven hundred and sixty-two and three respectively.[37]

The original Indian quota of 14,861 was divided among eighteen states, of which all but one, North Carolina, were west of the Mississippi River. Iowa received twenty, the smallest number, and Arizona the largest, 5,485.[38] Although the original quota has remained the same for all camp periods, there has been a shift in the various state quotas resulting in increases in some states and decreases in others, and in four states receiving Indian quotas for the first time. One of these, Florida, is east of the Mississippi and the others, Kansas, Nebraska, and Texas, were in the drought area. Arizona, with 2,655, still has the largest quota, and Florida the smallest, twenty-three. During the third period there was also an unused Indian quota of 4,212.[39] The territorial quota for Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and Virgin Islands, set at 2,377 has remained at that figure.[40]

The standards of eligibility for enrollees in the Civilian Conservation Corps are uniform and since they are officially adopted by the Department of Labor and approved by the Advisory Council, they are, therefore, mandatory on the State and local selecting agencies. The eligible men are divided into two groups, the Junior enrollees and the local experienced woodsmen. Selection of the first group is based upon a number of requirements. The first is that the applicant must be of the needy unemployed, otherwise the immediate purpose of the program would not be fulfilled. The need of these families is a matter of record and the men usually head the registered list of applications for work. This requirement avoids wholesale registration of the unemployed which would mean more expense and probably a smaller number of the needy taken care of. However, it should be remembered that "destitution" in itself is not a badge of "acceptability" as the selections are made on the basis of character, fitness, and purpose, and the greatest possible good to the community.[41]

The second requirement is that the applicant must be unmarried, a divorced man, or a widower at the time of his enrollment. Married men are excluded because it is thought undesirable to separate them from their families. The young unmarried men have been hit hard by the depression both as to employment and relief, and many have never had a job since they left school. The applicant must be between the

ages of eighteen and twenty-five, giving a range of eight years.[42] He must be a citizen by birth or naturalization. This requirement is laid down in the Emergency Conservation Act.[43] The enrollee must be physically fit for manual labor in the forests.[44] Later, mental fitness was also made a requirement, as the environment and the facilities of the camps are not suitable for mentally weak men. Unless he is re-enrolling, an enrollee must also have dependents, either by blood or obligation, though they may live in another state. The selecting agency may use its discretion as to the selection of applicants whose dependents are non-resident.[45]

An additional requirement is that each enrollee must agree to allot an adequate amount of his cash allowance for the benefit of his actual dependents. No rigid amount is required, but it is suggested that the selectors give preference to an applicant who wishes to allot $25.00 or more, as against one who signs up for less. The reason for this suggestion is that ordinarily $5.00 will be sufficient for incidental expenses of the enrollee, and all the men will be on practically the same financial basis while in camp. This, of course, has its advantages in the administration of camp life. No one is allowed the return of his allotment money from home, as such action would defeat the chief purpose of the relief measure. A violation of this requirement subjects the violator to discharge upon the recommendation of the selecting agency.[46] However, an increased allotment may be reduced to the original amount at the enrollee's request, without reference to his selecting agency, which is notified of the change of the allotment. Allotments are not allowed to residents of foreign countries, to trustees, or to persons unknown to the enrollees.[47]

An applicant might fulfill the eligibility requirements mentioned and yet be ineligible for enrollment or re-enrollment for the following reasons: If he is on probation or parole, if he has been discharged from the Corps for any cause during his enrollment period; if he has been discharged on the expiration of his enrollment period and not permitted to re-enroll at his station; if he has received an official discharge at any time, for any cause; and if an enrollee has married since enrollment, or has served the one-year enrollment limit he is ineligible for further service as an ordinary enrollee. Exceptions to the enrollment limit is made to those regular enrollees whose one-year service expires in the quarter in which they complete their year's enrollment. They are permitted to continue in camp until the end of the quarter.[48] Those enrollees whose one-year service expired between April 1, and June 30, 1934 were permitted to re-enroll for a three-month period, and automatically discharged the 1st of July.[49] A change in the enrollment regulations for the fourth period permits the Camp Commander to retain at his discretion the following rated men, regardless of their length of service: senior foremen, mess sergeants, company clerk, store keeper, and two cooks in each company; and the technical services may retain three leaders.[50]

It will be readily seen from these eligibility standards that the

peace time "forest expeditionary force" was to be made up of the finest young men to be found in the eligible group. It was to be composed of men of character—men who were clean cut, ambitious and purposeful. In order to secure such men the selectors were to take into consideration experience in such leadership training organizations as the Boy Scouts. Boys from such organizations are more likely to succeed in conservation work, as their personal qualities and training in woodcraft is especially valuable. The enrollment is voluntary; no coercion, pressure or force is used to induce men to enroll. The regulations plainly state that no one is being "conscripted" or "drafted" for the work and therefore none should be urged to join in order to support his dependents.[51] The enrollees are, consequently, those who are anxious to have a part in the forestry program and are earnest and willing to do the work.

In accordance with the general policies laid down by the Department of Labor, the State selecting agency makes decisions regarding State policy and procedure; designates local agencies, usually county and city relief and welfare agencies, to act as its representatives; and establishes local quotas. Flexibility in regard to the number of young men as compared to the number of local experienced woodsmen is given, so either group can be increased or decreased if the State selecting agency in consultation with the technical services concerned decides that conditions warrant deviation from established group quotas.[52]

In making its selections, the local agency, usually through a selection committee, reviews its relief lists and selects the names of the men eligible for conservation work. Then, if possible, members of the committee discuss with the prospective applicant and his family the nature of the work, the obligations to be assumed, and the rights the enrollees enjoy. The applicant is also given a booklet titled, "A Chance to Work in the Forests," which contains a series of questions and answers regarding the conservation work. If, after this procedure, the applicant decides to enroll in the Civilian Conservation Corps he signs the Application Memorandum, which is also signed by the agent of the local selecting organization. This memorandum contains the following information concerning the applicant: name; kind of citizenship; place and date of birth; usual trade or occupation; length of unemployment; number of company, its location, date of enrollment and character of discharge, if a former enrollee; educational grade; rank or position if a Boy Scout; and names, addresses and relationship of dependents.[53]

As soon as the corps area commander sends requisitions to the State selecting agency requesting that a certain number of men be sent to specified Army recruiting stations on a given date, it will order the local agency to have that number of men report at the time and place requested. The local agency, which is usually the one nearest the recruiting station, then notifies the applicants personally or by mail.[54] If possible it sends a representative to the recruiting station with the applications on the date set for the enrollment. If the local agency cannot send a representative it gives the men the proper

authenticated applications to take with them. Since transportation and food are not furnished the men until after their enrollment is completed, the applicants are requested to provide these, and to take with them the things they may want for the camp period in case they are selected. They are advised to "travel light" as the government furnishes whatever clothing, blankets, and camp equipment needed at camp. If a man is rejected, the selecting agency is urged to do what it can to furnish assistance to him. When the applicant is accepted the work of the selecting agency ends and that of the Army begins.[55]

In places where recruiting stations and Army posts are lacking, the Corps Area commanders arrange temporary recruiting stations, for the Junior group, at strategically located points. In exceptional cases it is arranged for them to go directly to the work camps from the recruiting stations where the enrollment and conditioning processes will take place instead of to the conditioning camps. Such special arrangements are made with the corps area commanders by the State selecting agency.[56]

Special procedure is followed in the enrollment of the local experienced woodsmen group. Representatives of the national Forest Service, the National Park Service and the State forestry or park agency have final voice in the selection and enrollment of the woodsmen for their respective sets of camps.[57] These representatives establish contact with the State selecting agency and work out cooperative plans for the enrollment of the experienced men, etc. The State directors of selection are authorized to designate these representatives to select and certify the woodsmen. If so designated, the representatives confer with the local unemployed men wishing to enroll. Although it is desirable from the relief standpoint to select those whose families are dependent on relief it is not necessary to do so. The aim here as in the selection of the Juniors, is to select men of character who are anxious to do conservation work.[58] The applicants may be married or single and there is no age limitation.[59] Local experienced men, like the Junior group, are subject to the one-year enrollment limitation, with the exception of 5,000 men. The President has authorized the continuous service of this number by re-enrollment of those whose year of enlistment expired between April 6, and June 30, 1934. The 5,000 selected by the camp superintendent for the third period have the privilege of re-enrolling for the fourth period.[60]

As soon as the woodsmen sign the application memoranda the certificates attached to them are signed by representatives authorized by the State selecting agency to do so. These representatives, of course, are from the technical services requiring the woodsmen for their particular camps.[61] Then the men are usually sent directly from their homes to the forest camps, where they receive their final physical examination and inoculation and complete their enrollment. The omission of the usual two weeks conditioning period is left to the discretion of the corps area commander, who determines the procedure to be followed. In all cases it is intended that the arrival of the local woodsmen

be simultaneous with or precedent to the importation of the Junior enrollees to the local camps.[62] Local woodsmen residing near their assigned camps are permitted to live at home.[63]

The procedure in the selection of the veterans by the Veterans' Administration is similar to that followed in the selection of the local experienced woodsmen. Regional managers of the Veterans' Administration are in charge of selection and they have set up tentative registers for those who wish to apply for conservation project work. The applicants are given application blanks, furnished by the regional offices, which must be properly filled in and also endorsed by citizens acquainted with the needs and responsibilities of the veterans.[64] In making the selections the selectors must determine whether the applicants meet the following requirements: that they served in the armed forces of the United States and were honorably discharged therefrom; that they are unemployed; that they are American citizens; and that they are in need of employment to support themselves and their dependents.[65] Generally selections of the veterans, as in the case of the Juniors, is made contingent on their allotment of a portion of the cash allowances to dependents. As soon as they are selected the veterans are sent to Army recruiting stations or places designated by the corps area commander where they are accepted or rejected. If accepted they are transported to reconditioning camps and from there to the work camps at government expense.[66]

The selection the Indians and some non-Indians on Indian reservation for emergency conservation work is in charge of the reservation superintendent.[67] The enrollment requirements are more liberal than those of the Junior group of the Civilian Conservation Corps. In fact the only conditions imposed upon the applicant are that he is in need of relief, free from communicable diseases and able to perform ordinary labor. No age limitations are imposed, but eighteen years are accepted as the minimum.[68] In order to provide subsistence for the winter the enrollees are usually required to deposit a liberal portion of their allowances into the Individual Moneys fund.[69] Indian enrollees are not subjected to a conditioning process in reconditioning camps, but are sent directly to the project camps.[70] All quotas are flexible and selections are made to meet the normal requirements of the Indian agricultural communities.[71] The Indian quotas are not included in the Civilian Conservation Corps quotas.[72]

Administration of the Camps

Perhaps to the War Department was given the biggest job of the whole emergency conservation work program, that of establishing and administering all work camps, except those on Indian reservations and in the territorial possessions. This is not the first time that this department has been called upon to aid in conservation of forests. Over a century ago the so-called "Live Oak Law"[73] was made more effective by an act directing the President to use such land and naval forces, as may be necessary to prevent the felling, cutting down or other destruc-

tion of the timber, and to take other measures to preserve the timber on the public lands in Florida.[74] This project was primarily a national defense measure as the oak timber was needed to build wooden war ships, but it was the first attempt at forest administration in the interest of the nation as a whole.[75] Seventy years later a definite system of army forest control, based on forestry courses in the West Point curriculum and supplemented by practical work in the forests, was advocated by prominent men, including John Muir and Professor C. S. Sargent.[76]

Leaders of the forestry movement, however, failed to endorse the idea, and Congress never seriously considered it. Carl Schurz, of the same period, favored the creation and training of special forest troops, similar to the forest engineers organized during the World War.[77] Nothing came of these proposals at the time, but they paved the way for the use of military reservations as forest reserves after the World War, an important element in the national forest and military policy.[78]

The status of the War Department in the present conservation program is somewhat different from that mentioned above. Professor W. F. Willoughby ably expresses its function when he says:

> It is well known that at no time has the War Department, on its own initiative, sought to formulate a policy or a general program in respect to the prosecution of public works for the development of the country. It has looked upon itself merely as an executing agent to carry out orders given it regardless of whether such orders were wise or not.[79]

This policy was verified before the Joint Hearings on the emergency conservation work bill by General McArthur when he said:

> The Army has no policy of course. The Army is, as usual, prepared to carry out any functions that may be required of it. In this particular case the Army is a general agency not with reference to any military project, nothing that concerns the national defense, but as an emergency relief organization.[80]

An analysis of the administration of the conservation work program shows that the War Department's status is the same as that of any of the other coordinating services, though its task is apparently much greater. It is given a work to do by the Commander-in-chief, and in carrying out this work the Army is subject to the orders and regulations issued from time to time by the President or for him by the Director of the Emergency Conservation Work.[81] Its function is "the acceptance of the unemployed men selected by the Department of Labor or Veterans' Administration; their assignment and transportation to reconditioning camps of the Army; their enrollment; their physical conditioning for their future work; their transportation to work locations, either as organized units or as groups of casuals; construction, command, administration, discipline, supply, sanitation, medical care, hospitalization, and welfare of the Civilian Conservation Corps work camps; furnshing work details from the Civilian Conservation Corps to the representative of the department supervising the assigned task; [and] demobilization."[82]

In order to carry out its function the War Department follows the orders of the conservation act, using existing Army agencies as much as possible. Its administrative set-up consists in the overhead organization at Washington and the field organization. The former includes the Office of the Secretary of War operating through the Office of the Chief of Staff and is highly centralized, while the latter is the decentralized corps area system, with various subdivisions. These agencies also utilize other related branches of the service where needed to carry on their work.[83]

The Office of the General Staff has justified itself as the planning agency of the Army in the organization of the emergency conservation work. It has supervised, coordinated, and provided needed assistance in its part of the work. Its general program of administration was ready before the office of Director of Emergency Conservation Work was established.[84] The reason it was ready, almost at a moment's notice, to take over the mobilization and operation of such a large "peace time army" was due to the decentralization of effort in the nine corps area headquarters. These decentralized organizations constitute practically nine small war departments, each more efficient than was the War Department in Washington at the outbreak of the late war.[85]

The work of the Office of the Chief of Staff relating to the conservation project is in the hands of the War Department's representative on the Advisory Council. He functions through the corps area commanders regarding enrollment, physical conditioning, camp administration and welfare; and through liaison officers at corps area headquarters concerning the assignment and replacement of enrollees. Through the Office of Chief of Finance the allotment of funds is made to the various departments after authorization by the Director of Emergency Conservation work. The heads of each department concerned submit detailed estimates of the funds needed for six month periods to the Chief of Finance who will issue procurement authority making the requested funds available for obligation by the departments. The estimates must also state the amount needed each month as the Director only makes authorizations for one month at a time.[86] Disbursements, within the allotments, are made by the Army Finance officers upon presentation of pay rolls and other documents properly certified by the supervisory and procurement officers.[87] Through the Quartermaster Corps, in charge of the Quartermaster General, the enrollees and Army administrative personnel are furnished with clothing, food, shelter and transportation.[88]

As mentioned before, the Chief of Staff has delegated the execution of all the details of the administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps to the nine corps area commands and refrains from interference therein. These corps areas are regionally divided and are usually commanded by a major-general or brigadier-general of the United States Army.[89] It is his duty to execute the War Department's part in the conservation work program within his corps area. He is "responsible for all matters incident to command, discipline, and demobilization of

units, and the construction of work camps and their supply, administration, sanitation, medical care, hospitalization and welfare."[90] As the principle of decentralization governs all command functions, he determines for himself what action is to be taken in regard to the problems which arise, subject, of course, to the limits of the law. If it becomes necessary to act contrary to instructions or regulations the commander follows his own judgment, and then reports the case to the War Department so that future difficulties may be avoided or minimized.[91]

In order to coordinate the work of the various cooperating services the corps area commander is assisted by a liaison officer. He represents the Forest Service and the National Park Service and assists these cooperating services in ironing out difficulties which arise, especially with regard to the assignment of workers requested by the work project agencies. In matters pertaining to the selection and enrollment of Juniors and local experienced woodsmen, and veterans the commander communicates with the head of the State selecting agency and the designated regional managers of the Veterans' Administration respectively.[92] A corps area civilian educational advisor, appointed by the Office of Education but directly responsible to the corps area commander, contacts him and arranges for the procurement and assignment of the camp educational advisers.[93]

In each of the nine corps areas army posts are used for the preliminary conditioning of the men before they are sent into the forests.[94] These conditioning camps are organized by the corps commanders who determine the number, location and size. They must have sufficient capacity to accommodate the quotas alloted to them and be as near as possible to the places of acceptance of the enrollees so that transportation costs will be at a minimum.[95] The number of these conditioning camps for each corps area varies according to the capacity of the camp and the size of the corps area. The total number for the first camp period was seventy-four and the maximum number of men present in all at any one time was 156,485.[96]

The conditioning camps are organized to receive the new arrivals from the recruiting stations, assign them to company units and process them. The company units are usually messed and sheltered separately and are organized temporarily according to the type of organization suggested for individual camp administration. The processing of the men consists of four steps: (1) Classification in a manner similar to that required of enlisted men, with special note made of those qualifications useful to the project administration services. Each man has a qualification record similar to that of a regular army man. (2) A physical examination if it has not been given at the place of acceptance or at the work camps.[97] The physical standards for special and limited service as prescribed in Mobilization Regulations No. 1-5, are used as a minimum standard guide by the medical examiners, except for veterans where the examinations and records both at the time of enrollment and discharge are thorough and complete. As soon as the selectees pass

the required physical examination they are enrolled by taking the oath of enrollment. (3) Each enrollee is allowed the clothing and equipment necessary for both the reconditioning and work camp periods. (4) His enrollment and other records are filled in as much as possible.[98]

The men generally spend two weeks in the reconditioning camps, during which time they go through a hardening process which is designed to place them in good physical condition before beginning conservation work. The work and play provided usually includes games, hikes, "setting up exercises," and certain kinds of manual labor. Those men who pass the preliminary examination at the recruiting stations and are sent directly to the conservation work camps are enrolled and conditioned at their assigned camps, while the local woodsmen are usually accepted and enrolled at the work camps without going through the conditioning process. When the conditioning process is completed in the reconditioning camps the enrollees are sent to designated work camps for the remainder of the six month enlistment period.[99]

In order to facilitate the administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps camps the corps areas are divided into districts which comprise one or more states. The commanding officers of these districts are stationed at designated army posts and have jurisdiction over the command and supply of the district. The state or states within the jurisdiction of these army posts are also divided into districts or sub-districts for each general locality or zone in which Conservation Corps groups are engaged in work projects. These district headquarters are organized under the direction of the corps area commander, and are usually designated according to locations as central, eastern, western, northern, and southern, or by numbers or names.[100] The function of these headquarters is "to decentralize from corps area headquarters the multitudinous details of command, including personnel administration, inspection, medical care, hospitalization, pay, transportation, and supply of the many separate units of the Civilian Conservation Corps."[101]

Most of the district headquarters are located in regular army camps or forts, but where these are not available headquarters are set up in convenient places. They are usually the distributing points for supplies ordered from the district post by the individual camp officers through these district headquarters.[102] Their personnel is determined by the corps area commander and generally consists of the following staff: a commanding officer, who has jurisdiction over the camps in his district; an executive officer; an adjutant, who has charge of the supply work; a chaplain, in charge of the religious, recreational and welfare work of the camps; and a medical officer, who may have one or more districts under his jurisdiction.[103]

The final administrative organization of the Civilian Conservation Corps is that of the company, which is the basic unit. All the enrollees are organized into distinct company units and each camp normally comprises a company with such personnel as may be required for its operation. The veterans' contingent is not mixed or consolidated with the

Junior units, but forms a distinct and separate part of the Conservation Corps. As soon as the companies are formed in the reconditioning camps they are numbered serially by assigning blocks of numbers to indicate corps area. The scheme used is to start with 100 and have the first number used to be that of the corps area in which the company originated. If over a hundred companies are assigned to a corps area, 1,000 is added to each block number.[104] Thus, Company 102 was the one located in the Miles Standish State Forest, at Plymouth, Massachusetts, in the First Corps Area; Company 322 was Camp Roosevelt in the Third Corps Area, the first camp established; while Company 1639 originated in the Sixth Corps and occupied a camp in the Ninth Corps Area.[105] Companies long established may have a number designating one corps area, yet occupying a camp in another corps area while its enrollees may be from a third corps area, as the company numbers do not change according to location of the men or camps.[106] However, each enrollee is assigned a serial number preceded by the letters CC and the number of the corps area in which he enrolled.[107]

Each company is assigned as many Regular Army and Reserve officers and Army enlisted men as authorized from time to time by the War Department. Both the Regular Army and Reserve personnel assigned comes from the corps area from which the company unit originates. Adjustments of personnel are settled between the corps area of destination and that of origin, and replacements are made from the corps area in which the unit is located. If replacements are not available the War Department is notified. The Reserve officers on active duty are used to supplement the Regular Army officers. They may be from line or staff arms or services according to the desire of the commanders of the corps areas. The period of active duty is normally six months, with no period less than sixty days.[108] Naval, medical and dental officers were also attached to the War Department for duty with the Civilian Conservation Corps,[109] but later when a shortage of such officers existed in the Navy, they were ordered relieved of such attachment.[110] Warrant officers of the Coast Guard were also attached to the Department for Corps duty and were given priority over members of the Army Reserve Corps, the Naval Reserve, and the Marine Corps Reserve.[111]

The company or camp unit overhead organization varies according to the type of enrollees, the location of the camp, and the season of the year. During the establishment of most of the camps the overhead personnel was usually much larger than it was after the camps were in good working order. A larger personnel was justifiable in the beginning because all of the enrollees were raw recruits and the problems of administration were greater than they were after the men became adjusted to their new environment. At first commissioned officers in charge were mostly Regular Army men and were generally assisted by several non-commissioned officers. Beginning with the second camp period most of these were replaced with Reserve Officers and the enlisted men were practically all relieved from service in the Conservation Corps.[112]

In addition to the military personnel, as many assistants as are necessary for camp administration are furnished or developed from the enrollees.[113] For the purpose of rewarding energetic effort and recognizing outstanding leadership, the President ordered that up to five per cent of the authorized strength of any one company could be paid a cash allowance of $45.00 per month, and an additional eight per centum, $36.00 per month.[114] The assistants so recognized are called leaders and assistant leaders respectively, while all other enrollees are enlisted men and receive a cash allowance of $30.00 per month.[115] With the addition of an educational adviser to the camp personnel an additional assistant leader was authorized and assigned to him.[116] Regulations require that when the company strength is reduced, for any cause, more than ten per cent below that originally authorized for it the number of assistants must be cut correspondingly at the beginning of the following month.[117]

The usual company overhead organization is in two divisions, namely, the company headquarters and the company organization of the enrollees. The former generally consists of the commanding officer, a second in command, an educational adviser, a medical officer and the necessary enrollees assistance.[118] The enrollee assistance assigned to camp duties ranges from twenty-two in warm weather to twenty-eight in winter, when more men are needed to gather fuel and keep the fires going in the barracks or tents.[119] The normal set-up of twenty-two is usually divided as follows: a mess steward, storekeeper, clerk, assistant to camp educational adviser, two first aid men, a mechanic, two watchmen, two truck drivers, five cooks, including one baker, and six members of the kitchen police. All of these assistants are leaders, except three of the cooks, the clerk, and the assistant to the educational adviser, who are classed as assistant leaders; and the kitchen police, the first aid men, the watchmen, truck drivers and in most cases the mechanic, who are from the ranks.[120]

The company work organization is in charge of the Senior Foreman and it is divided into two platoons of ninety-five and ninety-six men each when the normal two hundred men company unit is at full strength. Each platoon is divided into three sections of thirty-two men, each in charge of a section foreman. These foremen are all rated as leaders, except one.[121] The sections are divided into subsections of sixteen men with a foreman who is an assistant leader in charge of each. These first and second subsections are further divided into squads of six or seven men. A squad foreman is in charge of each squad but he is not rated as either a leader or an assistant leader. The deduction of the senior foreman, five section foremen, twelve sub-section foreman, twenty-four squad foremen, and the eight leaders and assistant leaders usually assigned to company headquarters, from the normally authorized unit strength of two hundred enrollees to a company, leaves one hundred and fifty men in the ranks.[122] The enrolled strength of most camps, however, is often from thirty to forty below established quota and seldom exceeds two hundred except in the camps occupied by drought relief enrollees. Then too, the number of men absent on leave

or "without leave" further lowers the company's strength considerably.[123]

The commanding officer of a Civilian Conservation Camp, who is usually a Captain or First Lieutenant in the Regular Army or the Reserves,[124] is the representative of the corps area commander within the scope of his command. He is charged with complete responsibility for the camp, the personnel administration, and the welfare of the men.[125] In carrying out his duties and responsibilities he is assisted by the military personnel assigned to his camp; the company unit organization, acting through the senior leader; the educational adviser; and to a certain extent by the project superintendent. He has no responsibility for or authority over any of the men employed by the other cooperating federal services for the technical supervision of the work projects, except when such personnel lives at the work camp. Then his authority extends over the matter of mess, shelter, sanitation and medical care.[126]

In the appointment and disrating of leaders and assistant leaders the commanding officer consults the project superintendent, as the same leaders are used in most cases for project as well as for camp administration.[127] A record, signed by both the commanding officer and the project superintendent showing that the appointments have been mutually agreed to, is made.[128] In case of a disagreement the matter is appealed to the corps area commander for his decision. Permanent appointment of these leaders and assistant leaders is not made until one month after the enrollment of the men. This delay permits the development of the most able and worthy men of the Company for the leadership jobs and gives the experienced man a chance to become a leader. The camp commander and the camp superintendent also mutually decide whether an enrollee is to be denied the privilege of re-enrolling because of unsatisfactory performance of his work, and their decision is final.[129]

The duty of the commanding officer in the matter of discipline is limited to the regulations issued by the Emergency Conservation Work Director as authorized by the President. The penalties are similar to those "customarily imposed by the management of industrial enterprises in order to maintain efficiency of production and equality of opportunity and privileges for those employed."[130] When a hearing is merited it is conducted according to rules of evidence, which is made a matter of record. At the hearing the commander informs the accused of the charges, and affords him the opportunity to state his case and call such witnesses as he desires.[131] The accused can be represented by any member of the company or work project supervisors he may select. If he desires, the accused can appeal from the decision of the commander to the corps area commander, whose decision is based upon a thorough investigation by a disinterested officer, and is final. The appeal is made in writing within two weeks of the company commander's decision, and is routed by him through the district commander to the corps area commander.[132]

The commanding officer is authorized to administer the following punishment at his discretion: (1) Admonition, for simple offenses observed or admitted, and for which prompt punishment is necessary, no hearing or record is required. (2) Suspended privilege, for a maximum period of one week, if it does not interfere with the work project in the field. (3) Substitution of specified duties in camp for the regular field work, the limitations being the same as those of suspended privilege. (4) Deduction of cash allowance, the total deducted not to exceed three days' allowance, except as provided below. (5) Forfeit of all cash allowances and allotments, except deposits of veterans, and dishonorable discharge for the following offenses: refusal to work; absence without leave, or desertion; continued or serious misconduct; and unwillingness to abide by the rules and regulations prescribed for the Corps.[133] Later, conviction by a criminal court, unless sentence is suspended, or in any case involving moral turpitude, was added as an offence entailing dishonorable discharge.[134] The dishonorable discharge is not mandatory and other authorized punishment may be given if the company commander so desires. The administrative discharge was also added later and it is authorized for some of the offenses formerly punished by dishonorable discharge. These offenses are: refusal to work; desertion, continued or serious misconduct; and unwillingness to abide by the rules and regulations. Failure to reasonably perform camp or project work is also included in this class. The administrative discharge is more lenient than the dishonorable discharge in that no forfeiture of cash allowances or allotments is required. The right of a hearing, or representation by counsel, and of appeal is mandatory in administrative as well as in dishonorable discharge.[135] Leaders and assistant leaders may be disciplined by a reduction to the ranks.[136]

Although the disciplinary authority and responsibility of the commanding officer is set forth above, the administering of discipline varies according to the type of men and commanding officers. In some camps self government by the enrollees practically prevails, especially for simple offenses. Here they have their own "kangaroo courts" where the offender is tried and mild punishments are meted out for such offenses.[137] In many camps this system works well,[138] while in others it has had to be abandoned because "hazing" and the airing of personal grudges were the result.[139] The men in some camps have never had any restraint placed upon them at home, and their previous environment was such that no amount of self government would succeed. Then in some camps the commanding officer was jealous of his authority and all matters of discipline were handled by him, while in others his personality was such that he was the logical one to take care of such matters.[140] As discipline is one of the chief problems in the administration of the camps, and military training and army discipline is forbidden, it can be truly said that the success of a camp depends upon the type of commanding officers in charge.

Although the matter of discipline is one of the most important administrative duties of the commanding officer, most of his time is taken up with other matters. If the work projects are more than twenty

minutes' ride from camp,[141] mess in the field has to be provided for the workers. Necessary steps have to be taken to see that the members of his command do not violate the national, state, county or local game laws. Setting visiting days, limiting the number of visitors and playing host to them is under the control of the commanding officer. He grants leave of absence with pay in an emergency, the approval of the project superintendent being necessary in most cases. He has to make final decisions about the allowances of those whose absence is due to their own misconduct and without leave. If their absence is eight days and continuous, they are dropped from the rolls and proper disposition of their records is made.[142]

The commanding officer's duties are not limited to organization and administration of the company unit. If there is a dispute as to what is the prevailing rate of wages in the matter of camp construction he makes the decision, subject to appeal to the Director of Emergency Conservation work. He makes requisitions through the corps area commander for the necessary supplies and equipment, including clothing required for his company. He is responsible for the receipt from each man for the initial and maintenance allowance of clothing and toilet articles and its certification, etc., on the clothing record. When such other articles as blankets, barrack bags, mess gear, etc., are issued and receipted on the individual record of the men, a memorandum receipt of such equipment is given to the accountable property officer. Periodical inspection is made to determine the possession of the equipment issued, and if any clothing or equipment is lost or damaged through fault or neglect, it may be charged against the pay of the enrollee. If the man declines to accept the charge, the matter is submitted to a surveying officer for appraisal.[143]

The camp commander also permits a discharged man to retain such articles of serviceable clothing as may be necessary for his immediate needs, and such other equipment as toilet articles and barrack bag.[144] When a man is dropped from the rolls, except in case of discharge, his personal equipment is inventoried and if any shortage or damage exists through the fault or neglect of the man, the commanding officer issues a certificate, if the value does not exceed $10.00, which is used as authority for bringing charges against the man. If the loss or damage is not due to the fault or neglect of the man, the certificate is approved by the district commander and filed by the accountable officer as a voucher for dropping the property from accountability.[145] Many other duties and responsibilities of the commanding officer might be mentioned, but most of them are usually delegated to others of the camp personal, and will be explained in turn.

The duties of the second in command in a Civilian Conservation camp vary according to the size of the administrative personnel and the amount of delegation of responsibility by the commanding officer. If the commanding officer is away, the second in command has complete charge of the camp for the time being, in addition to his normal routine work. In camps where he and his commanding officer are the only

members of the staff, his duties are generally that of finance officer, motor transport officer, quartermaster, and welfare officer.[146]

As finance officer the second in command prepares the pay rolls in triplicate or quadruplicate on War Department Form No. 366, and has them signed by the enrollees. These are submitted in duplicate to disbursing officers at Post Headquarters not later than the 22nd of each month.[147] After the disbursing officer checks the rolls, the original copy and duplicate with the check for the cash allowances are forwarded to the finance officer if it is not possible to make payment in person. On the last day of the month the enrollees are paid as soon as they are identified by either a commissioned officer or a civilian everseer, who signs the witnessing officer's certificate on the face of the payroll. The allotment checks are mailed directly to the dependents from the Army post by the disbursing officer.[148]

The duties of the second in command as transport officer consists mainly in overseeing the care of the two trucks and the ambulance used by the camp. Careful monthly records of the amount of alcohol, gas, oil, tires, tubes, etc., used must be kept. As quartermaster he has the usual duties of that office, especially the arrangement of transportation for the boys to their homes.[149]

Perhaps the greatest responsibility of the second in command comes under his duties as welfare officer. These include the athletic program, the library service, the religious services in the absence of the chaplain or minister, the camp exchange, and the educational system before the addition of an educational adviser to the camp personnel.[150] During the past year however, the responsibility for most of the welfare activities as well as for the educational work was given to the educational adviser.[151]

Before the addition of an educational adviser to the camp personnel an educational system established by the corps area commanders in cooperation with the project administration services was already in operation. The project supervisory force cooperated with the camp personnel in instruction in general and vocational subjects, especially forestry.[152] In some camps local school teachers assisted in the teaching.[153] Silent motion pictures and slides of an educational nature were shown. Hobbies were encouraged and general "camp fire" discussions, at which attendance was optional, were held. Special attention was given to illiterate enrollees and those who desired to better their elementary education.[154]

With the coming of an educational adviser a more comprehensive educational program is being carried on. The camp commander makes routine schedules of instruction suitable for the needs of his particular camp, based upon instructions and teaching procedures prepared by the Office of Education. He still has charge of all instruction but is assisted by the educational adviser and the other Army, and project service personnel. Upon recommendation of the educational adviser the commander assigns one of the enrollees to assist in the work.[155]

The educational adviser is in charge of the educational program in his camp and is responsible for the following duties: "To have general supervision of the educational activities in the camp; to develop an educational program suited to the needs and interests of the men in his camp; to secure supplementary educational facilities from schools, colleges, and other organizations available to the camp; to supervise the work of the assistant leader for education; to recommend to the camp commander opportunities for coordinating the educational program with the work and recreational programs of the enrolled men; and to advise and counsel with the enrolled men on their educational program as well as their future vocational adjustment."[156]

The adviser's duties include the counselling with the individual men and stimulating their interest in some educational activity. His first step is to find out the interests and problems of the men. These relate to their vocational interests, opportunities for employment, and re-establishment of family and home relationships, as well as their camp interests and problems. The latter take the form of co-operative responsibility with their administrative officers and fellow workers, of problems of an individual and personal character, and of their individual interests and need of educational activity.[157] In discovering these interests and problems the adviser consults freely with the camp and project personnel and associates with the enrollees individually and in groups. After gaining their confidence and the necessary information he selects small groups for conferences and these become the nucleus of further educational activity.[158]

Then the adviser attempts, on an entirely voluntary basis, to stimulate the interest of the men in some educational activity. These activities are grouped under four general heads, representing the principal modes of procedure under which it is possible to undertake them. (1) Educational extension services, consisting of correspondence and university extension work for those working more or less on an individual basis; lectures and lecture courses put on by social service organizations; motion pictures under camp auspices or through arrangements with nearby theaters and other facilities; select radio programs followed by suitable discussions. (2) Group conferences and supervised study for groups ranging from ten to twenty. (3) Individual reading and study of books, magazines and newspapers in the camp library or those from available libraries. (4) Regular class instruction in literacy, elementary and high school subjects adapted to the interest and need of adults; in utility courses, such as conservation, forestry, guidance for behavior, first aid, natural science, nature study, personality development, sanitation and woodcraft; in economic, political and social problems; in vocational classes, such as cooking, and repairing; and in handicraft classes.[159]

The educational program, although initiated in the second camp period, did not come into its own until the third period.[160] During that time 1,468 camps placed it in operation under the supervision of 1,087 camp educational advisers who were assisted by 1,468 camp assistant

educational advisers and a number of volunteer workers. There were 18,214 courses offered, averaging ten per camp, meeting twice a week with an average attendance of fourteen enrollees at each meeting. This voluntary systematic study was engaged in by 133,156 enrollees, and 2,479 illiterates learned to read and write. Twenty per cent of the subjects taught were fundamental subjects for illiterates and those classed in the elementary grades. Thirty per cent were of the high school level while only seven per cent were classed as of college level. Vocational subjects constituted thirty-one per cent of the subjects taught and the self expression group, such as dramatics, hobbies, etc., accounted for twelve per cent. In a study of 183,000 enrollees it was found that one-half of one per cent had never attended school; fifty per cent had attended grammar school, twenty-five per cent having graduated; forty-six per cent were former high school students, but only fifteen per cent had received their diplomas; and that three and two-tenths per cent had been to college, but three per cent of these were non-graduates.[161]

Although there were 14,206 classes, consisting of 3,026, elementary courses, 5,180 high school, 1,167 college, and 5,026 vocational, being conducted early in the fourth camp period, the chief development of this period was the extension program. This was made possible by the co-operation of state and local school officials who provided correspondence courses and regular evening or special classes for the Civilian Conservation Corps men.[162] High school and college credit is given for this work as well as for certain kinds of work completed in camp. In the latter case the tests or examinations are conducted under the supervision of the educational adviser or the regular teacher of the subject in an approved school.[163]

The medical officers of the camps are generally chosen from the Medical Department personnel of the Regular Army. When these are not available medical officers of the Navy and of the Medical Reserve Corps are utilized, and when these are not available or if efficiency and economy warrant, contract surgeons are obtained on part or full-time basis. In emergency cases civilian physicians on a fee basis, dentists, and registered nurses for enrollees at Army hospitals are employed. There is usually one medical officer for every two or more camps and he is assisted by two first aid men selected from the Corps. They generally receive their training in administration of first aid and in making physical and sanitary inspections while in the reconditioning camps.[164]

The medical officer is responsible for the care of the sick and injured in the work camps. His duties do not include definite treatment for long continued cases, elective surgical operations, or other than emergency dental work. Such care is classed as hospitalization and is arranged for in Army, Navy, United States Public Health, and Veterans' Administration hospitals, if available and near camp, and if not, in civilian hospitals.[165] The medical officer co-operates with local and State health officials in the prevention of contamination of public water supplies, and renders prompt reports to them of communicable diseases

developed in camp. Once each month, accompanied by a camp officer, he or a contract surgeon makes a general physical inspection of the members of the camp. He is also responsible for the daily camp register of the sick and injured, and grants sick leave permits to those who are not able to work.[166] In his absence and in exceptional cases sick leave is granted by the commanding officer.[167]

The duties and responsibilities of the leaders and assistant leaders of the camp headquarters personnel vary from camp to camp. The mess steward corresponds to the mess sergeant in the Army and his duty is to oversee the feeding of the members of the company in the camp, in the field, and in the side camps, if established. There are usually two first and three second cooks, one of whom is the baker, and normally six "kitchen police." The latter may be increased according to the needs and the number assigned to it for disciplinary reasons. The store keeper's duties are similar to those of the supply sergeant in the Army, while the company clerk is responsible for the clerical work of the company headquarters. The assistant to the educational adviser, as mentioned before, aids the adviser in carrying out the educational program. In some camps the enrollee who runs the "canteen" is classed as athletic and welfare assistant and is given additional pay from the canteen profits, since he cannot be classed as either a leader or an assistant leader.

The duties of the enrollees not classed as leaders or assistant leaders, not listed elsewhere are as follows: the mechanic or plumber has charge of the latrines, operation of the boilers, and the plumbing; the truck drivers operate the Army camp trucks as ordered and keep them in repair as much as possible; and the watchmen perform guard duty at night. In some camps the watchman's duties are performed in shifts of several hours each, with assigned enrollees taking their turn. In other camps one man is assigned as night watchman and sleeps during the day, while in others the two watchmen alternate. They also have charge of the lighting and plumbing systems. In addition to the personnel listed above various duties are assigned to the other enrollees from time to time as the need arises.

The company work unit organization is in charge of a senior foreman, six section foremen, twelve subsection foremen, and twenty-four squad foremen.[168] The first two are classed as leaders, except one section foreman who is an assistant, the subsection foremen as assistant leaders, and the others as regular enrollees. The senior foreman acts as a liaison officer between the commanding officer and the project superintendent and the enrollees. In addition to contacting the men for the camp and project officials, the senior foreman has charge of the sleeping quarters of the men and whatever duties the commanding officer assigns to him. He is assisted by the section foremen who carry out his orders through the other foremen listed above.

The enrollees are housed in tents permanently or until barracks are built. These barracks are uniform and generally designed to house two crews of twenty or twenty-one men each. An enrollee, who may or may not be rated as a leader or an assistant leader, is placed in charge of

each barrack. He is usually called a barrack leader, and is assisted by two sub-section men, one from each work crew. The barrack leader is responsible for the sleeping quarters and the enrollees quartered there. He makes daily inspection with or without the commanding officer, and reports on the conduct of the enrollees.

The daily routine, like the camp organization, is flexible and similar in all camps. It is patterned after the schedule used in the Army, but made to fit in with the project, educational, religious and welfare programs. The morning schedule is usually as follows: First call, 5:45; reveille, 6:00; Breakfast, 6:20; sick call, 7:00; inspection, 7:15; work call, 7:30; and start for work at eight o'clock. One hour is given for lunch which is served at 12:30. Hot lunch of regular camp menu is served in the field if the workers are at a distance requiring over twenty minutes ride to camp. The men return from work at four o'clock and answer mail call at four-thirty. At five o'clock formation and dress inspection is held as the workers change their denim work clothes for their regular khaki outfits. Dinner is served at five-twenty, after which the men are free for athletic, educational and recreational activities. Taps, which merely means all lights out, is sounded at ten o'clock, except on Friday and Saturday nights. This exception is made because there is no project work on the following days and the men are more or less free. Furthermore, many of the boys go home or to nearby towns over the week-end.

The weekly schedule varies according to the weather conditions and the needs of the hour. In the main it is as follows: Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday, conservation project work; Saturday camp work and recreational and athletic activities; and Sunday, church services or Sunday school in the morning and athletic and recreational activities in the afternoon. Educational classes are generally scheduled for week nights and when the men are off duty. Often the church services are held on Monday, Tuesday or Thursday nights, as it is impossible to secure local ministers on Sunday or Wednesday on account of their own religious services. One night a week, usually Wednesday, is set aside for motion pictures or other forms of entertainment. In many camps the barrack group which has the best kept "bunk house" for the week is given some such reward as a free trip to the movies in nearby towns.

In the matter of camp routine most of the commanding officers are reasonable and lenient with the men. Permits to leave camp while off duty are usually not required unless the men expect to be gone over one day. If a man is out of camp and returns after taps, nothing is said unless he is not in physical condition for the next day's work. Sick leaves are readily granted if the medical officer and the company commander think it advisable. As military training and army discipline are strictly forbidden, the official personnel does all it can to avoid the appearance of them. The absence of military training is evident, especially when the men "march" in unit formation in parades at celebrations. Instead of guns they carry the axe, the saw, the shovel and the hoe, and their stride is that of the woodsman instead of the soldier.

The amount of work the men do about camp depends more upon their group pride in establishing and maintaining the beauty of their camp ground than upon official requirements. The barracks, built usually by contract labor, and the grounds are put in shape by the men during the several days acclimation period. Practically every camp has one or more activities which merit special attention. These include the planting of flowers, trees and shrubbery and the beautification of walks and grounds. The awarding of prizes to the best camp in each corps area has stimulated group pride in these activities.

As the men have many hours of leisure special effort is made to provide suitable athletic and recreational activities for them. A certain sum of money is alloted for such equipment as basketballs, footballs, baseballs, boxing gloves, etc., Athletic contests are held with teams of neighboring camps and towns. Library service, similar to that of the Regular Army is organized for those who care to read. It includes magazines, periodicals, newspapers, writing material, circulating library of fiction, nature and travel, and a permanent library of a serious nature. Many of the camps also publish a newspaper and contribute to **Happy Days,** the official organ of the Civilian Conservation Corps. In addition to a radio in every camp, orchestras and bands are organized in many of them. These activities and opportunities together with the educational and religious programs keep the men well occupied during their leisure time.

CHAPTER III

ADMINISTRATION OF THE CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS

(continued)

Project Administration: Department of Agriculture

The work of the Labor and War departments in the emergency conservation program deals with its immediate purpose, that of unemployment relief for certain classes of the unemployed. On the other hand the job of accomplishing the ultimate objective of the plan, that of conservation of the natural forest resources, was given to the Department of Agriculture, the Department of the Interior, and on a small scale the War Department. Critics of the whole plan were skeptical of the possibility and practicability of conservation work on so large a scale.[1] Alfred E. Smith, who spoke of it as "excursions to camps in out-of-the-way places," said that the work would produce little of permanent value.[2] The task of the Agriculture, the Interior and War departments, therefore, is not only to select suitable camp sites and to oversee the project work, but also to choose projects which, when completed, will be of permanent value. These departments have been called the generals of the Civilian Conservation Corps war, since their task is to map out the line of attack and supervise the accomplishment of the ultimate objective of the project.

The Agriculture and the Interior departments were made responsible for the administration of approximately ninety-eight per cent of the conservation work projects. These two departments assigned most of their project administration to the various services carrying on similar federal conservation work. The Department of Agriculture made one agency, the Forest Service, responsible for practically all of its emergency project administration.[3] A study by the Forest Service revealed the need for comprehensive forest conservation and the readiness of this Service to place such a program into operation when the emergency conservation work was inaugurated.

(a) The Forest Service

The Forest Service began in 1876 with the establishment of the Bureau of Forestry for scientific study of the forestry problems. In 1905 it was merged with the protective organization created under the Department of the Interior and given the name of the Forest Service. Conservation of the national forests did not assume definite shape until the close of the nineteenth century,[4] when legislation authorizing the President to set aside appropriate portions of the public domain as forest reserves was enacted.[5] This delay was due to the popular idea, prevalent since colonial days, that American forests were inexhaustible. Johann David Schoepf, a German student of forestry, in his Travels in the Confederation, truthfully prophesied America's conservation policy for the nineteenth century when he said:

> In America there is no sovereign right over forests and game, no forest service. Whosoever holds new land, in whatever way, controls it as his exclusive possession, with everything on it, above it, and under it. It will not easily come about therefore that, as a strict statutory matter, farmers and landowners will be taught how to manage their forests so as to leave for their grandchildren a bit of wood over which to hand the tea-kettle. Experience and necessity must here take the place of magisterial provision. . .[6]

The earliest and nearest approach to anything like an idea of conservation of American forests was by William Penn before leaving England in 1681. In section "eighteenthly" of his original concessions to the first settlers of Pennsylvania he stated "that in clearing the ground care to be taken to leave one acre of trees for every five acres cleared, especially to preserve oak and mulberries for silk and shipping."[7] It is true that attempts were made in colonial days as well as during the formative period to preserve certain types of trees, first, for the King's Navy and later for the American Navy. The Broad Arrow policy, so called because of the Crown symbol cut on trees reserved for the Royal Navy, was set forth in the Massachussetts Bay charter of 1691,[8] and reaffirmed by many of the American States and the Federal Government;[9] but it died with the passing of the wooden navy.

Feeble attempts were made following the Civil War to promote a conservation program, but most of the proposals never got beyond the discussion stage. Even the Bureau of Forestry had nothing to do with the timbered areas of the public domain, which were under the General Land Office.[10] There was in fact, a forestry system without forests, a condition which lasted until the twentieth century. At the turn of the century Kipling wrote a true picture of the American forest policy, at the same time envisioning the present conservation program. He said:

> The great American nation, which individually never shuts a door behind its noble self, very seldom attempts to put back anything that it has taken from Nature's shelves. It grabs all it can and moves on. But the moving on is nearly finished and the grabbing must stop, and then the Federal Government will have to establish a Woods and Forests Department the like of which was never seen in the world before. And all the people who have been accustomed to hack, mangle, and burn timber as they please will object, with shots [sic] and protestations, to these infringements of their rights.[11]

The administration of Theodore Roosevelt, however, saw the launching of a conservation policy which paved the way for the present emergency program. Under the brilliant partnership of President Roosevelt and Gifford Pinchot the Forest Service was established in 1905, with Pinchot as the first Chief Forester.[12] During his administration forestry came into its own with the transference of the control of the forest reserves to the Department of Agriculture, thereby placing all the forest work of the national government, with few exceptions, in the Forest Service.[13] Many other changes, such as range control, the establishment of six field regions, and the creation of the Forest Products Laboratory in co-operation with the University of Wisconsin,

came during his administration.[14] His great service came to a dramatic end in 1910, when President Taft dismissed him for disobeying the President's orders in the famous Ballinger-Pinchot controversy.[15]

The next step in conservation of forests came in 1911 with the passage of the Weeks Act which made a national unified forest fire control policy possible. Co-operative fire protection and a uniform forest policy had become a necessity, as the Northwest was the last great stand of virgin forest. The Weeks Act enabled the Forest Service "to co-operate with any State or group of states, when requested to do so, in the protection of the forest watersheds of navigable streams." It authorized the purchase, by the Federal Government, of forest lands on the headwaters of such streams. The Act also created the National Forest Reservation Commission "to consider and pass upon such lands as may be recommended for purchase."[16] However, the World War checked federal forest work, except that of the two regiments of forest engineers who assisted in cutting timber products for the armies abroad.[17]

The Clarke-McNary Act of 1924 extended the cooperation provision of the Weeks Act "to the protection of watersheds of navigable streams," and permitted the Secretary of Agriculture to further extend it "to any timbered or forest producing lands within the co-operating States." It also permitted the purchase of "such forested, cut-over or denuded lands within the watersheds of navigable streams."[18] Increased purchases of forest lands under the provisions of the Weeks Act, as amended by the Clarke-McNary Act, were authorized by the Woodruff-McNary Act of 1928.[19] The same year the McSweeny-McNary Act established a ten-year program of forest research which is laying the ground work for a permanent system of forest conservation.[20] This program together with the late Chief Forester Stuart's report, "A National Plan for American Forests," made in response to a resolution by Senator Copeland on what could be accomplished in the way of reforestation, paved the way for the Forest Service to carry out its part of the emergency conservation program. Secretary Wallace in submitting the report to the Senate, while the Emergency Conservation Work bill was under discussion,[21] said that he "fully endorsed and recommended the earliest possible action on the Federal part of the plan."[22] The plan called for an immediate five year Federal and State aid program of forest fire protection, forest planting, farm forestry extension, industrial forestry extension and insect control. In addition it outlined a twenty-year program on similar lines divided into five-year periods.[23]

With such an extensive forest conservation program already planned it was only natural for the Department of Agriculture to assign most of its work to the Forest Service.[24] The selection of camp and project sites and the technical administrative supervision of over three-fourths of all the emergency conservation work camps have been under its supervision from the beginning of the project.[25] The Forest Service welcomed the assignment, as it would further the completion of the "national plan for American forestry." Since the normal permanent

force of the Forest Service was approximately 2,700 persons, including the overhead personnel at Washington and regional headquarters,[26] it was necessary for the Service to increase its force, especially in the matter of work project supervisors.

The administration of the conservation work by the Forest Service, like the operation of the camps by the War Department, is divided into the Washington overhead organization and the field service. At its head is the Secretary of Agriculture who works through the Forest Service. He appointed the Chief of the Forest Service as his representative on the Director's Advisory Council. The Chief Forester works through his assistant, who is in charge of carrying out the conservation work in national and state forests and on private lands. The assistant, who is an associate forester, has charge of the field supervision of the regional foresters of the ten national forest districts. State forest and private land work is assigned to an assistant forester, with field supervision by five inspection area officials and ten regional foresters.[27] The Forest Service also appointed the nine liaison officers, one for each corps area headquarters, to help in the assignment of men required by the project services.[28]

The Forest Service utilizes its various branches in the conservation work. The Branch of Operations has the job of securing and maintaining the personnel equipment, quarters and supplies for the ten forest regions as well as for the Washington headquarters. Its biggest task is the supervision of fire control and permanent improvement work on approximately 160,000,000 acres of national forests. The Branch of Forest Management looks after the planting of denuded national forest land and insect and disease control. The development of recreational resources within the national forests is placed in the Branch of Lands, which also has charge of the administrative work connected with the purchase of forest lands in the East. The Branch of Range Management has charge of the improvement of depleted grazing areas, while the Branch of Research does the investigation work of the Service. To the Branch of Engineering is given the civil engineering work on the projects. It makes surveys, constructs the necessary maps and supervises the building of roads and trails. The Branch of Public Relations acts as liaison agent with the states in the supervision of the work on State forests and private lands. Each of these branches of the Forest Service is in charge of an assistant forester.[29]

The field work of the Forest Service is divided among ten regional foresters, each in charge of a region or district.[30] Their work is directed by the various branches of the Service in their several lines of activity. In addition to the regional foresters, there are usually associate regional foresters who are in charge of the activities throughout the region and on the individual forests. Each of these one hundred and forty odd national forests has a forest supervisor, assistant supervisors, and forest rangers.[31]

The supervisor's headquarters are located in towns conveniently situated in relation to his particular forest. He is in direct charge, and

is responsible for the efficient management of his forest and for the technical handling of all its resources. He is responsible to the regional forester, who in turn is responsible to the Chief Forester. The supervisor plans the work under the direction of the regional forester, and supervises its execution. If his work warrants additional help, assistant supervisors are added to the supervisory force.[32] There are also assistant supervisors, who are staff officers assigned to special technical or administrative duties. Supervisors and their assistants are usually men of experience in woods work, road and trail building, and other national forest activities.[33]

Forest rangers are primarily field men who have charge of ranger districts in each national forest. They are responsible, under the forest supervisors, for the routine work of protection and management of their activities. Their work includes supervision of grazing, timber sales, and the building of roads, trails, bridges, telephone lines and other improvements. The rangers, whose work is primarily forest fire protection, are responsible for the work of the fire guards and for the detection of forest fires and their suppression. In addition they do all they can to organize public sentiment in their districts for forest fire control. The field personnel also includes associate and assistant foresters, who examine and map forest areas, report on applications for purchase of timber, manage timber sales, survey national forest boundaries and summer home sites, and supervise nursery work and forestation. These foresters also supervise the junior foresters assigned to experiment stations, the forest products research work and the timber surveys. Logging engineers and chief lumbermen, associate and assistant range examiners, who supervise forest range investigations and administration, and junior range examiners, who take charge of range surveys, and other specialized activities of the range work come under their supervision.[34]

In addition to the existing agencies authorized by the Emergency Conservation Work Act to be utilized in the furtherance of the program,[35] a project camp personnel is selected to carry out the work projects. At its head is the camp superintendent, who is under the supervision of the forest ranger. The superintendent is in complete charge of the foremen, and of the enrolled men during working hours. The foremen are technical woodsmen, trained in forestry and engineering, who supervise the project work of the enrollees.[36] Their number varies according to the type of work project carried on. Generally there are one general foreman; from two to four truck trail foremen; one or two special telephone foremen, who were in many cases the old forest guards before the Civilian Conservation Corps came into being; about four machine operators, especially if the machinery is used in two or more shifts; and two or more cultural foremen for the planting season. The cultural foremen are usually college graduates. In addition to the foremen there are a number of mechanics assigned to each camp.[37] As the emergency program has been superimposed on the regular activities of the Forest Service, the supervisory force has been

expanded many times and hundreds of inexperienced workers have had to be trained for their particular tasks.[38] The duties and responsibilities of the project camp personnel are similar on all work projects and, therefore, will be taken up in detail in the discussion of project administration by the National Park Service.

The Forest Service, in addition to performing the work of its own service, supervises the work projects for the Navy Department on naval reservations, and for the Tennessee Valley Authority. In Alaska and Puerto Rico both camp and project administration are under the supervision of the Forest Service.[39] It also plans and supervises projects on the California and Oregon land grant.[40] Its work with regard to State forests and other State-owned or State managed forest lands and erosion control work on private lands is that of general supervision and assistance, the State forestry personnel doing the field supervisory work.[41]

The work of the Forest Service can be divided into the following classifications: (1) Forest improvement work, which includes the improvement of timber stands and the thinning out and removal of undesirable trees; planting of trees; forest timber and range surveys; and the rounding out of the national forest through the purchase and improvement of non-federal timber lands.[42] (2) Forest protection work, including the reduction of fire risks by the removal of such fire hazards as standing dead trees, brush and old logs along roads and trails; construction of forest roads and trails for the speedy operation of fire fighting units; the building of firebreaks, to prevent fires from spreading; construction of lookout towers, fire guard cabins, and tool houses for fire fighting equipment; the laying of telephone lines and construction of emergency fire control landing fields; and the waging of campaigns against destructive tree diseases and insects. (3) The control of soil erosion through tree planting, revegetation work, and the construction of dams. (4) Creation of refuges for birds, fish and wild animals.[43]

(b) Miscellaneous Conservation Projects

The Department of Agriculture also has several emergency conservation projects carried on under the immediate supervision of the Bureau of Animal Industry and the Bureau of Biological Survey.[44] The work of the Bureau of Animal Industry consists mostly in forest improvement and protection work, erosion control and landscaping. It has only had one camp, established in Maryland during the second camp period, under its supervision.[45] The Bureau of Biological Survey has supervised three projects on migratory bird refuges acquired by the Bureau. These projects are located in North Carolina, on Blackwater River in Maryland and on the St. Marks River in Florida.[46] The last two camps completed their work during the second period, but two others were established in similar projects in Nebraska.[47] The aim of the projects is to make the refuges more attractive to bird life. These Bureaus, together with the Forest Service, are assisted in their work by the Bureaus of Entomology, Agricultural Engineering, Chemistry and Soils, and Plant Industry.[48]

Project Administration: Department of the Interior

The Department of the Interior welcomed the emergency conservation work program. It would enable the National Park Service, the Office of Indian Affairs, the General Land Office and the Soil Erosion Service to speed up much needed conservation projects. Most of the project administration of the Department, like that of the Department of Agriculture, has been given to a single service: the Office of National Parks, Buildings and Reservations. This Service, formerly called the National Park Service, regarded the emergency program as presenting a long deferred opportunity of furthering its national park and monument program.[49] In its origin, changing functions and expansion, the National Park Service bears a close analogy to that of the United States Forest Service.

(a) The National Park Service

The establishment of national parks as an American institution grew out of the classic stories of the Yellowstone region by James Bridger, the celebrated hunter and trapper. Over a hundred years ago he visited this region several times and his stories of its wonders seemed so fantastic that newspapers refused to print them.[50] His stories, however, and those of later trappers led to the exploration of the Yellowstone phenomena. Suggestions to commercialize this wonderland were overcome by the proposal to establish a national park.[51]

The national park idea was pushed by its advocates and in 1871 an official exploring party was sent to the Yellowstone country by the Federal government.[52] As a result Yellowstone National Park was created on March 1, 1872.[53] The significance of the act has been ably expressed by General Hiram Martin Chittenden, who said:

> It was a notable act, not only on account of the transcendent importance of the territory it was designed to protect, but because it was a marked innovation in the traditional policy of governments. From time immemorial privileged classes have been protected by law in the withdrawal for the exclusive enjoyment, of immense tracts for forests, parks and game preserves. But never before was a region of such vast extent as the Yellowstone Park set apart for the use of all the people without distinction of rank or wealth.[54]

The preservation of national monuments began in 1906 when Congress passed an act entitled "An Act For the Preservation of American Antiquities."[55] The act was the culmination of a movement by archeologists, scientists and others to protect ancient ruins and other objects of historic or scientific value. National monuments are different from national parks in that their object is the preservation of some historic or prehistoric landmarks. On the other hand the purpose of national parks is the development of certain areas for recreational purposes. Parks may have had national monument status in the past, as was the case with the Grand Canyon and Zion Parks.[56] The first national monument, the Devil's Tower, like the first national park, was set aside in Wyoming.[57]

Administration of the national parks and monuments was loosely organized until the beginning of the World War. The parks and most of the monuments were handled as an incidental item in the Miscellaneous Section of the Department of the Interior. All other monuments were under the jurisdiction of the Department of Agriculture or the War Department, depending upon their military significance and contiguousness to national forests.[58] The field of supervision of the parks was, in most cases, in the hands of superintendents appointed by the Department of the Interior. Yet some of the parks were patrolled by soldiers at the request of the Secretary of the Interior.[59]

The first step in establishing an improved system of parks administration was made by Secretary of the Interior Lane in 1913. He placed his Assistant Secretary in general charge of park administration. The following year a General Superintendent and Landscape Engineer, with headquarters in San Francisco, was given supervision of the various park superintendents.[60] Three years later Congress authorized the appointment of a general superintendent of national parks, with headquarters in Washington.[61] It also authorized the selection of not more than four clerical or other assistants to the general superintendent.[62]

These movements for a coordinated system of administration for national parks and monuments culminated in the National Park Service, created by an act of Congress in 1916.[63] The Service was to consist of a director, assistant director, chief clerk, a draftsman, and other clerical employees.[64] Funds for its establishment, however, were not provided until the following year.[65] The first Director was Stephen Mather, who had been in charge of the national parks since 1915. He was succeeded by Horace M. Albright in 1929,[66] who served until the present conservation program was in operation.[67] The present Director is Arno B. Cammerer.[68]

In a letter to Director Mather in 1918, Secretary Lane set forth the policy of the National Park Service. He said in part:

> This policy is based on three broad principles: First, that the national parks must be maintained in absolutely unimpaired form for the use of future generations as well as those of our own time; second, that they are set apart for the use, observation, health, and pleasure of the people; third, that the national interest must dictate all decisions affecting public or private enterprise in the parks. Every activity of the Service is subordinate to the duties imposed upon it to faithfully preserve the parks for posterity in essentially their natural state.[69]

Secretary Lane's successors endorsed the principles laid down by him in his national park service policy. Perhaps the most serious menace to this policy was the movement to open up all parks and monuments for water power development.[70] President Wilson averted this, in one of his last official acts, when he signed an act of Congress which repealed that part of section eighteen of the Rivers and Harbors Appropriation act of 1917, which authorized licensing of existing parks and monuments for power projects.[71]

From the time of its establishment until the emergency conservation work program was inaugurated, the National Park Service developed according to the expansion of the national parks and monument program. During that time the Department of the Interior assumed complete control over all activities connected with the park system. The War Department relinquished its police duties and road and trail construction in the Yellowstone and other parks in 1918 and 1919. This transference of service ended duplication and even triplication of control, as it had been necessary in some cases to maintain three separate and distinct offices, three office forces and separate warehouses.[72]

The reorganization of the National Park Service by President Roosevelt in 1933, consolidated all Federal park activities "in an Office of National Parks, Building and Reservations.[73] This merger of functions more than doubled the number of national parks, national monuments and allied areas.[74] Some of the areas transferred were national cemeteries and national military parks of the War Department, located within the United States proper,[75] while others had been under the supervision of the Department of Agriculture.[76] With the extension of the conservation project of State, county, and municipal parks,[77] and the expansion of their programs as well as that of the national parks and monument service during the past year,[78] project administration by the National Park Service has become an important part of the emergency conservation work. The Service had extended its landscape architectural activities and developed six-year master plans for all the national parks before the inauguration of the conservation project. It was, thereby, enabled to go ahead immediately and competently with its part of the emergency work program.[79]

The administration of the emergency conservation work by the National Park Service, like that of the other agencies connected with the program, is divided into the overhead organization and the field services. At the head of the Washington organization is, of course, the Secretary of the Interior. He functions through the Director of the National Park Service, who is also the Department's representative on the Emergency Conservation Work's Advisory Council.[80] The Director is responsible for the control, management and supervision of the parks, monuments and related areas. He formulates the policies and directs the protective work from the standpoint of preservation and utilization and enjoyment by visitors. He directs construction work from the architectural, engineering and landscape points of view.[81] Public educational service in its archeological, historical and museum development phases, and in the natural sciences, is also under his supervision. The Director is responsible for the creation and organization of new national parks and national monuments, to see that they meet required standards.[82]

(b) The National Park Work

The Office of National Parks, Buildings and Reservations was given the responsibility for the planning and execution of the conservation work projects on national parks and monuments, military parks and

monuments, State parks, one or two related areas, and in Hawaii.[83] For administrative purposes the work of the National Park Service was given to the National Park Work and the State Park Work organizations.[84] The National Park Work is in charge of the Chief Forester, who is also assistant to the Interior Department's representative on the Advisory Council. He acts as liaison officer for the various bureaus of the Department.[85] In Washington he is assisted in his administrative work by four branches of the National Park Service: (1) The Branch of Research and Education organizes and develops the educational program which includes dissemination of information regarding the beauty and scientific features of the national parks and monuments. (2) The Branch of Lands and Use exercises complete supervision over all matters concerning land, legislation, regulation and use of the park and monument areas. (3) The Branch of Public Building has charge of the maintenance and protection of government buildings used in the furtherance of the conservation program. (4) The Branch of Operations has complete supervision over all fiscal and personnel matters in connection with park and monument conservation work. These four branches of the Service are in charge of assistant directors who perform the normal duties of their offices in addition to the extra work given them as a consequence of the conservation program.[86]

The Field Organization of the National Park Service is also divided into four divisions: (1) The Branch of Plans and Design is in charge of the Chief Architect. He supervises the architectural and landscape designing and planning, and designs all park construction to see that the landscape features are preserved in accordance with the national park policy. He also confers with the Bureau of Public Roads on road locations. (2) The Branch of Engineering has a chief engineer in charge of the engineering designing and planning of all maintenance and minor road construction projects. Centralized purchasing for road construction and maintenance equipment is also placed under his supervision. (3) The Branch of Forestry has the duty of supervising the protection of parks and forests from fire, injurious insects and tree diseases. Compilation of fire statistics, study of fire protection problems and type mapping of forest studies are carried on by this new establishment which is in charge of the Chief Forester.[87] (4) The National Park System Areas which are under the supervision of superintendents and custodians,[88] have organizations similar to the general service organization, especially with regard to the larger parks.[89]

Each of the national parks or monuments is in charge of a local superintendent or custodian, who is responsible to the Washington organization for all the activities within the area under his control. The number of his assistants depends upon the size of the park or monument. There are usually four or five for the smaller areas, while in the larger ones, such as the Yellowstone and the Yosemite, a larger force, including protective, clerical, education, and engineering assistants is necessary for their administration.[90]

Before the establishment of the conservation camps in national parks and monuments the protective work was carried on by the ranger force, headed by a chief ranger, who is under the jurisdiction of the superintendent or custodian, as the case may be. The ranger force is increased or decreased according to the work to be done. In summer a large force is necessary on account of the tourist traffic and fire fighting. The ranger's other duties include improvement of trails, repair of telephone lines, protection of wild life, supervision of camp grounds and checking and directing traffic. Because of the hardships and responsibilities of the work, only men between twenty-one and thirty-five years of age are eligible for ranger positions. The ranger service has been professionalized and requires college training.[91]

In every national park in which there is a regularly appointed superintendent, the responsibility for the success of the emergency conservation work is placed upon him. In cooperation with such detached technical men as junior landscape architects, park engineers, foresters and wild life technicians, he formulates the conservation work projects. The general procedure suggested is to hold meetings at regular intervals preferably on Saturday mornings, to discuss the different phases of the conservation work. These meetings are usually attended by the park superintendent who is in charge, the detached technicians, the project superintendents and the camp commanders. In case there is no superintendent for the particular park, the senior project superintendent has charge of these meetings. These work project plans, of course, are then approved by the supervisors of the various branches of the field organization of the National Park Service and the Director of Emergency Conservation Work.[92]

In general the duties and responsibilities of the detached technical supervisory force for one or more camps are as follows: The landscape architects plan and supervise the location of bridges, roads and trails. They direct the designing and construction of buildings, fire lookout stations, and shelters. Roadside beautification and the general preservation of the lanscape features of the project during construction and conservation work are under his direction.[93] The parks engineers direct the location and construction of bridges, lookout stations, motor roads, telephone lines, trails and other improvements of the park and forest areas. They also supervise the solution of drainage, erosion and other problems relating to forest and landscape preservation. The foresters, like the park engineers, plan and organize their work in two or more camps. They prepare plans for the development of large forestry enterprises and inspect the project work of the camps under their jurisdiction. Their duties require a broad practical knowledge of forestry and the exercise of much independent judgment.[94]

The duties of the historical technicians are such that graduate training in history as well as some practical experience in leadership and historical research are essential requirements of these officers. They are appointed to analyze the historical qualities of those areas which have been set aside primarily because of historical considerations. They work directly under the Chief Historian of the National Park

Service, and are responsible for the execution of the general historical policies of the Service in the areas assigned to them. Their chief function is to advise the park superintendents of the best ways to develop and preserve the historical qualities of these national areas for future generations.[95]

In contrast with the duties of the historical technicians are those of the wild life technicians. Instead of developing and preserving the past, their work lies in the preservation of the various kinds of wild life adapted to their special areas.[96] Under the supervision of the Branch of Research and Education, their task is to determine: first, the approximate present supply of wild-life in their national park or monument; and secondly, what kinds of extinct wild-life might be reintroduced. They survey the boundaries of the areas and recommend desirable changes to insure adequate breeding and living conditions for the wild life, and report on the problems of providing food, cover, nesting places, etc., for the maximum number of various species suited to these areas. In addition these technicians investigate and report on what interrelations and ecological conditions are favorable or unfavorable.[97]

The immediate supervisory personnel of the conservation projects consists in a senior project superintendent, a project superintendent, technical foremen, technical sub-foremen, and non-technical foremen.[98] For each 200-man camp there are generally the project superintendent and eight or ten foremen. A smaller number is recommended, especially for newly established camps, where the nature of the work projects permit a curtailment of the number of supervisors. Of the number assigned to a particular camp, there should be an experienced engineer, a technical forester, and a trained landscape man, as well as historical and wild life technicians. Additional engineering and landscape foremen are provided if the nature of the work demands them.[99]

The senior project superintendent is responsible for the supervision and direction of the activities of one or more camps.[100] His chief duty is to coordinate and unify such forces in two or more company organizations engaged in the same or similar activities over a given section or district. He consults with, advises and recommends new work to his administrative superior. It is also his duty to supervise the keeping of all necessary and pertinent accounts and records, and the making of reports to the proper authorities. He is given responsibility for results and has wide latitude in the laying out of the details of the work program for his area.[101]

Many of the duties and responsibilities of the project superintendent are similar to that of the senior project superintendent, except that his supervision is confined to the activities of a single 200 or 250-man camp.[102] His other duties and responsibilities are as follows: He is responsible for the execution of the plans and specifications furnished by his superiors for the work to be done by his camp. In order to do this the project superintendent must plan, organize and schedule the separate processes so that the whole operation will be accomplished efficiently and smoothly. He must also study his supervisory personnel

to determine its technical knowledge, experience and skill, and then assign each member to the type of work he is best fitted to direct.[103]

In order to aid his foremen in their work, the project superintendent issues general and technical instructions which cover: the purpose of the work to be accomplished; the elimination or disposal of fire hazards; methods of handling the work crews; the distinction between road and truck trails; standards and specifications and how their observance is to be insured; methods of laying out and changing work; the keeping of the surveys ahead of construction work, if necessary, and the mature and precision of the work to be done; the methods of using available mechanical equipment; the care, conditioning and repair of hand tools and mechanical equipment; precautions against accidental fires; precautions to be taken against accidents and action in the event injuries are sustained; and the various devices of good foremanship required to expedite the work.[104]

It is the duty of the project superintendent to organize the workers into crews and assign them to particular foremen. The size of the crew varies according to the requirements of the especial job, but it generally ranges between five and twenty-five. It is also the duty of the superintendent to inspect, correct, instruct and supervise the foremen in their work. He must have their work planned ahead and see that the work crews are supplied with equipment, materials and supplies as needed. In addition he is requested by his superiors to maintain cooperative relations with the military personnel of the camp. As his Service has no control over the enrollees after they return from their project work, great care must be exercised to prevent conflict of authority and responsibility. He is also requested either to remain in camp over week-ends, or have a qualified man available, to show and explain the project work to visitors.[105]

The duties and responsibilities of the technical foreman vary according to the different types of foremen. The principal foreman supervises and directs the activities of groups of enrollees in those camps which are under the jurisdiction of a senior project superintendent. His duties are quite similar to those of the regular project superintendent. He must have a college degree and three years or more of technical experience or the equivalent. Besides assisting the project superintendent in planning the work program, the senior engineering foremen make the necessary topographic and other surveys, and prepare maps and estimates of the conservation projects. They supervise the work crews engaged in erosion control, road repair and trail construction, and make such inspections as their superintendent directs. The senior landscape foreman assist the landscape architect in planning his work, supervise work crews and keep records of their work. They also select and work native seedlings in the forests and arrange them on site of planting, trim important specimens, clear wooded vistas, slope road-sides, and perform any other work of a landscape nature.[106]

The work of the senior forestry foremen is, perhaps, more extensive than that of the other technical foremen engaged in the conservation work. Besides assisting in forestry project planning and in directing the movement of the men, they have the following duties: They direct the work of from six to fifteen men or groups of men in field planting of seedlings; select and remove worthless, diseased, or defective trees; treat insect infested trees; reduce fire hazards; eradicate ribes in pine blister rust areas; and direct road and trailside cleanup work.[107] This last job is usually carried on by placing a forestry foreman over two or more cleanup or miscellaneous foremen. The latter direct the actual activities of the cleanup work crews, while the forestry foreman correlates their work. He assumes responsibility for all burning operations, decides on the status of diseased trees and hazardous limbs, selects the trees for removal where thinning and cutting are desirable, protects the homes of wild life, and attends to any other matters pertaining to the job.[108]

The technical sub-foremen are classified as foremen, junior foremen and sub-foremen and their duties vary according to the type of work to be done. Those engaged in truck trail construction assist the superintendent in organizing the crews and formulating the general work plans for such construction and maintenance. They aid in the planning, organizing and scheduling of the separate processes so that the whole program may move forward efficiently and smoothly. These foremen also prepare and execute the detailed job plans for each particular project and keep the time and cost records of such work. The planting foremen supervise directly the crews of men assigned to them for such work as digging up, transporting and setting out trees and shrubs; the maintenance of plant materials; and other jobs of a landscape nature. They also attend staff meetings of the landscape architect and assist in the planning of his work.[109]

Foremen who are technically trained and proficient in the eradication of ribes are responsible for carrying out the blister rust control work. They train their working units of from forty to fifty men in the location and recognition of ribes plants and ribes sites, the methods of eradication and disposal of these plants, and keep records of the work accomplished. [110] Those foremen who check behind these working units to see if the completed job meets the required standards for the control of the disease on pine areas are called checkers. In case the work is below standard and the disease continues to spread, they indicate the areas needing reworking, the method to be used and the amount of work required.[111]

The insect control foremen must be thoroughly trained in the entomological phases of the entire project as well as in the handling of men. Working directly under the superintendent, they personally direct and supervise the work of the spotter foremen, and the spotting and treating crews. Their work calls for years of experience in the timber types assigned to their supervision. These work crews, averaging eight in number, are usually comprised of six men each, including the spotting foremen who are entirely responsible for the work of their

men. These foremen also must be trained in the entomological phases, etc., of bark beetles. Other technical sub-foremen are those who organize and direct the work of fire supression crews. They are employed only as needed during the fire season.[112]

The same form of grading required for technical sub-foremen is required for non-technical foremen. They direct from five to forty men on work of the following types: erosion control; fire lookout, telephone line, truck trail and miscellaneous building construction; forest clean-up; forest fire suppression; and water development projects. These foremen must have a detailed knowledge of the use and handling of equipment, materials and tools used in their work, and be able to keep a record of the work done under their direct supervision. They must, in short, be mentally, morally and physically able to supervise the work of the enrollees as outlined to them by their superiors.[113]

The supervisory personnel, while not required to live in the camp or take their meals at the camp mess, may do so if they desire. Housing is furnished at a nominal cost by the Army and meals at a cost of approximately fifty cents per day.[114] Suitable housing and messing facilities, while satisfactory in many cases, have not been so in others. In order to make the necessary adjustments in present camps, and in the construction of future camps, Director Fechner instructed the Corps Area Commanders to inform the representatives of the technical services of the nature of the proposed accommodations. These commanders are to give careful attention to the views of the technical officials, but when an agreement cannot be reached, a full report of the case is to be made to the Director.[115]

The minimum standards set forth for the camp quarters of the technical personnel are as follows: (1) A separate room (or tent) for the camp superintendent, either in the Army personnel building or in the building where the foremen are quartered. (2) Ample sleeping quarters for all foremen, with an additional assembly or lounging room or tent nearby. If the quarters are located at the end of the barracks, the partition shall extend to the roof. (3) The supervisory personnel shall under no circumstances eat at the same table with the enrollees. They may eat either at special tables at the end of the hall with the Army personnel or in a separate room in the hall. These standards have been met in some camps, exceeded in some, and not reached in others.[116]

In addition to the foremen there are generally two mechanics assigned to each camp. These men may be machine operators, blacksmiths, tool sharpeners or supervisory mechanics. If such skilled artisans as plumbers and electricians are needed for a specific job and none are available from among the enrollees, such skilled labor may be secured at the prevailing wage in that particular locality.[117] Many of the enrollees have been promoted to such supervisory positions as cultural and construction foremen, machinists and tool sharpeners.[118] Special consideration and authorization from the Washington office

must be had for the selection of such help as clerks, typists, if they cannot be secured from among the enrolled men.[119]

The appointment of the supervisory personnel and others employed in the project work, except the enrollees, is vested in the Secretary of the Interior.[120] However, for minor positions he has authorized the Director of the National Park Service and the heads of the other bureaus of the Department assisting in the conservation work "to make such employments, as directed and in accordance with prescribed orders and limitations."[121] The major positions are filled by the Secretary himself. Reports of all appointments are furnished the Secretary's office weekly through the bureau in charge of the work.[122]

The conservation program of the National Park Work as well as that of the State Park Work, consists mainly in the cleaning and beautification of the parks and monuments and allied areas. This includes the control of the blister rust and other forest diseases threatening the ruin of the white pine stands, the control of insect attacks, and the eradication of rodents and poisonous plants.[123] The forest improvement and protection work, and the control of soil erosion is similar to that carried on by the Forest Service in the Department of Agriculture.

(c) The State Park Work

Federal conservation work on State, county and metropolitan sections of municipal parks is carried on by a special organization of the National Park Service called the State Park Emergency Conservation Work.[124] The establishment of this organization was the first attempt to cooperate in an official way with State park, county and municipal park agencies.[125] The work on county and municipal parks, however, is limited to "preventing and controlling forest fires and the attacks of forest tree pests and diseases and such work as is necessary in the public interest to control floods."[126] The establishment and supervision of the State Park Work organization was given to the Assistant Director who is in charge of the Bureau of Planning. He supervises the preparation and completion of data covering all advance planning of proposed parks and allied areas. His assistants in the Washington headquarters are the supervisor of the State Park Work program, an assistant supervisor, and a small staff of helpers.[127]

The field organization of the State Park Work is decentralized as much as possible by dividing the United States into five regions or districts.[128] Each district is in charge of a district officer, who has had broad experience in many kinds of park work. His monthly reports to the Washington office summarize the work performed from his headquarters and in his district. Attached to the district office is a staff of inspectors composed of men having technical training as engineers or as landscape architects. This field staff, which corresponds to the detached technical supervisory force of the National Park Work, is in continuous contact with the project work as well as with the supervisory personnel. Each inspector, as a representative of the district

officer, has a group of five or more state parks or allied camps assigned to him. In the case of an emergency he may act with the full authority, decision and finality of his superior, provided he acts within the limits of his subordinate position.[129]

The duties of the inspector are to familiarize himself with the project programs proposed for each camp; to keep in contact with the work on these projects and see that the program is being carried out in accordance with approved park standards. He may disapprove or criticize the kind of work that is being done or the way in which it is handled. In case of a disagreement between him and the park officials, the matter in question is adjudicated by the district officer. The inspector is authorized to examine all the records of the camp superintendent to see if they are carefully kept, that they are complete, and that they show the monthly progress of the work.[130] In his bi-monthly report to the Washington office through the district officer the inspector gives a list of the camps visited and the "high-lights" of the half month's work. He is requested to include information as to new situations arising, and doubtful decisions made by him. The decisions may be studied and reviewed by the district officer or the Washington office.[131] In a few cases the inspector has been called upon to assume supervisory control over work which he is qualified to supervise.[132]

Within each state, of course, there is a variety of official agencies charged with the administration of the state, county, and municipally owned areas on which federal conservation work is being performed. It is through these agencies and their designated representatives that the Federal State Park Work organization, including its field staff, directs the project work on the park areas. The state agencies are expected to do the general planning of their projects and to have general supervision of camp operations.[133] They are given complete authority to carry on the conservation work, subject to the approval of the program and plans by the National Park Service. They also assume responsibility, through their appointment of procurement officers, for all moneys spent on state park work by the Federal government. The policy of the Washington office in charge of State Park Work is to have these state officials feel that they can act, within certain limits, as if their work was being financed by state instead of federal funds.[134] The Federal supervisory force of district officers and inspectors assist the state park officials in their work, and see that the program is being carried on in accordance with accepted park standards.[135] State officials recommend to the Secretary of the Interior for appointment, the superintendents, foremen, and other appointees needed in connection with the project work.[136]

The procurement and alternate procurement officers are separate from the supervisory personnel of the state park conservation work.[137] However, their duties as official representatives of the park authorities "on all matters pertaining to purchases and to property accountability,"[138] make them an important part of the project administration personnel. They serve without pay and are appointed by the Secretary

of the Interior, usually upon recommendation of the park authorities in whose jurisdiction the conservation work is carried on.[139] There is generally one procurement officer for each State and some states, like New York, Illinois and Virginia, have two or more. Not every state, however, has an alternate procurement officer.[140] These officers are responsible for the purchase and contracting of all supplies, tools, equipment (except expensive purchases such as trucks), and other materials received from Army surplus stock or paid for with Federal funds.[141]

Limitations placed upon purchases and payments of procurement officers are as follows: Purchases involving expenditures of $100. to $1,000 and continuous or indefinite service payments such as telephone service, may be made only under contracts, negotiated with the lowest of at least three bidders, and such contracts must be approved by the Washington office.[142] Contracts for purchases exceeding $1,000. in amount are subject to the final approval of the Secretary of the Interior. The procurement officers, in order to expedite purchases, may request approval or disapproval by telegram instead of by letter. In cases of a real emergency in which project work is being, or may be, held up by lack of materials or tools, authority is given by telegram to make these purchases, and the contract requirements are submitted immediately for examination and approval. Evasion of the above requirements by splitting purchases is strictly forbidden.[143] On proposed contracts exceeding $2,500. for the purchase of equipment, materials and supplies, invitations for bids must be approved by the Director of the Emergency Conservation Work.[144] The delay caused by this procedure is usually held within a week by sending and returning the proposed invitations via air mail. These contracts also require the approval of the Secretary of the Interior.[145]

Purchases made by the procurement officers must also conform to the National Industrial Recovery Act, either with the provisions of the codes or those of the President's Re-employment Agreement.[146] In case a contractor fails to comply with the Act his contract is terminated and purchase for the undelivered supplies is made in the open market, "and the contractor and his sureties shall be liable to the Government for any excess cost occasioned the Government thereby." The open market purchases are also contingent upon the sellers' compliance to the National Industrial Recovery code or with the President's Re-employment Agreement.[147]

Another important duty of the procurement officers is the preparation and submission of the payrolls of camp superintendents, foremen, blacksmiths, tool sharpeners, mechanics, and clerks of the camps under their jurisdiction. These camp payrolls are generally made up under the direction of the project superintendent, and submitted to the procurement officer,[148] who transmits them bi-monthly to the Finance Officer.[149]

The duties and responsibilities of the supervisory personnel of the state park conservation projects are quite similar to those of the

National Park Work. At the head is the project superintendent, who "must possess a high degree of ability to plan and organize work on a large scale."[150] In addition he must be able to supervise the work in such a way that the program is carried out in conformity with park standards, and the men and materials utilized efficiently. He as well as the other members of the project supervisory personnel are answerable directly to the state, county, or metropolitan park agencies, or their representatives for the actual work accomplished on each project.[151]

The chief duty of the project superintendent, in cooperation with his foremen, is to map out and organize the project work assigned to him for the whole camp period as well as for each day's labor.[152] The daily program usually planned at the close of the working day, is arranged in the form of a work sheet. It includes the distribution of the available men, tools and equipment for the next day's work, and is given to the storekeeper, who prepares the assortment of tools needed for each job.[153] The project superintendent is in complete charge of the foremen, blacksmiths, mechanics and other employees, as well as the enrolled men during working hours.[154]

In addition to his other duties, the project superintendent makes the following monthly reports to the Washington office: (1) A monthly progress report, compiled according to specific instructions. (2) A monthly project cost report, prepared at the end of the month. This report is filled in quadruplicate and copies filed in the superintendent's office, with the procurement officer, in the district office, as well as in the Washington office. (3) A monthly record of truck operation, which includes daily and monthly mileage figures for each truck; and all expenditures, listed separately, for repairs, labor and cost of parts, if replacements are made.[155] These last two reports are available at all times for inspection by the inspectors and other authorized officials.[156] In case two or more companies are working on a single location, one superintendent is given general charge of the entire project.[157]

The number of foremen, as in the other administrative project agencies, varies according to the needs of the camp. There is a sufficient number in each camp to supply competent direction of the project work,[158] but the maximum number is ten.[159] Their qualifications are that at least two of them shall be men with technical training in landscape architecture[160] and the others shall be "properly qualified for the work to be undertaken." This is a departure from the requirement of the first camp period, which prescribed that each camp should have a certain number of cultural, erosion control, landscape and miscellaneous foremen.[161] As in the National Park Work, there may be also a number of certain specially qualified foremen assigned to special duty in or for more than one camp. Such assignment is subject to recommendation by the district officer and the approval of the Assistant Director or of the State Park Supervisor.[162]

Duties and responsibilities of the foremen not brought out in the discussion of the National Park Work are as follows: They check in the

inventory of tools[163] and the list of men[164] assigned to their respective work crews for the day or the job. Before proceeding to the project work they supervise the loading of equipment, tools and crews on the trucks.[165] The foremen also direct the project work in accordance with plans previously worked out with the superintendent.[166] The list of men is checked once or twice daily and those missing are reported to the superintendent.[167] To avoid accidents the foremen also see that the general and special speed and driving rules are enforced.[168]

(d) Indian Emergency Conservation Work

Project and camp administration by the Office of Indian Affairs, although it does not come within the scope of the Civilian Conservation Corps proper, should be mentioned because the Indian conservation work is an integral part of the whole emergency conservation work program. The Indian program was placed on a separate basis, primarily because objections were made to locating quasi-military camps on Indian lands.[169] As a result, the Indian camps are organized quite differently from those operated by the other governmental agencies.

Instead of the two hundred or two hundred and fifty men unit organization, the camps are informal set-ups of small groups of Indians.[170] During the first year of the program, approximately two-thirds of the enrollees were living at home or in private "family camps" pitched near the work projects.[171] An entire reservation in one state is arbitrarily considered as one camp regardless of the number or location of the groups.[172] Usually there are between thirty and fifty workers in each group.[173] Unlike the Civilian Conservation Corps, no distinction is made between the camp operation personnel and the project supervisory force. In most cases the Indians provide their own subsistence and the teams used in the project work, while the Indian Emergency Conservation Work organization furnishes the needed equipment, supplies and tools.[174] In such cases the allowances made to the workers for supplying quarters and subsistence costs the Government much less than the operation of large camps. The allowance of sixty cents per day, which, based upon the monthly maximum of twenty work days, gives the worker a pay check of $42.00 for each month of full employment. Indians are permitted to work on a day basis at $1.50 per day, which keeps their allowances within the $30.00 per month limit authorized by the President.[175] The part the Indian pony plays in the conservation work is shown by the use of several thousand of them on the work projects.[176]

The Indian workers are not subject to formal regulations, like the Civilian Conservation Corps enrollees,[177] but are left to develop their own tribal individuality as much as possible.[178] This type of organization is necessary in the Indian program, since there are no important forests on many of the reservations which would warrant the establishment of large camps for six months periods.[179] Besides, most of the workers are married, while a half year's continuous residence in camp would, in most cases, prevent them from tending their crops and livestock. Then, too, Indian tribal life, with its many religious and tribal festivals,

would cause much waste of time and money on transportation of the workers to and from the camps for these special occasions.[180]

Although the organization of the Indian camps is different from most of the conservation camps, the enrollees are given practically the same opportunities for individual advancement as those in large encampments. Health agencies are available to all the workers and the usual health safeguards are employed wherever work camps are established. Educational and religious opportunities are provided according to the Indian needs and customs. Recreational activities consist in hunting and fishing, indoor and outdoor games, and modern and tribal dancing.[181]

A unique feature of the Indian program is the cooperation of the tribal councils in the selection of the work projects. This feature, together with the requirement that as much as possible of the supervisory work, as well as the labor on the projects, be done by the Indians themselves, is in line with the experiment of Indian management of their own affairs.[182] From the beginning Indians were given preference in the selection of the supervisory personnel.[183] During the first camp period over a third of the supervisory personnel were Indians.[184] This number included one camp superintendent, four foresters, seventy-seven group foremen, one hundred and forty-four mechanics, and fifty-seven assistants.[185] The third camp period saw the number on the supervisory staff increased to more than one-half of the positions. Non-Indians employed are mostly technically trained men, because few Indians could qualify as engineers and foresters.[186]

Indian training camps for leaders were established and they have become an important phase of the work. The enrollees may be promoted to assistant leaders, then to leaders, to sub-foremen, assistant foremen, to group foremen, and even to project managers. Pay for these positions, except the latter, range from $36.00 per month for the assistant leader to a maximum of $167.00 for the group foreman. Up to June 30, 1934, approximately 1,560 assistant Indian leaders and leaders were available.[187] The ratio of supervisors to enrolled men is about one to twelve. This ratio includes such facilitating personnel as camp cooks, truck drivers, etc., as well as engineers, foresters and other professional men.[188]

Conservation work on Indian reservations is limited mostly to erosion control and forest protection. In selecting the type of work projects chief consideration is given to the relative poverty of the Indians and the need of constructive work that can be undertaken on the reservations.[189] The forestry projects are similar to those carried on by the other conservation work agencies, while erosion control projects are aimed largely at preventing overgrazing and at range improvement. Such projects include boundary surveys, erosion dams, elimination of useless range stock and prairie dogs, range revegetation, pest eradication, and the building of corrals, driveways, and reservoirs or "charcos."[190] In the summer of 1934, $200,000 was authorized to be spent for the drilling of deep wells on Indian reservations affected by

the drought.[191] In addition to these projects minor flood control work and the improvement of public grounds have been authorized.[192]

The Indian program got under way shortly after the President placed the sum of $5,975,200 at the disposal of the Indian Office in June, 1933.[193] and by June 23, thirty-seven Indians were enrolled. The enrollment increased rapidly and in less than five weeks it had jumped to 6,970. Changes increasing the number of enrollees brought the average Indian enrollment to 12,702 by the end of the first camp period. The average daily numbers employed on field work at that time was 10,614, and for camp duties 804.[194] By "staggering" the work the number employed in the months of maximum employment was between twenty and twenty-five thousand, giving benefit to approximately 80,000 to 100,000 Indians during the first year of the emergency program.[195]

(e) Miscellaneous Conservation Projects

The Department of the Interior also has several conservation work projects operated under the supervision of the General Land Office, the Soil Erosion Service, and the Bureau of Reclamation. With the smallest number of camps and the fewest workers of any of the supervising services,[196] the General Land Office had the distinction of having the only camp assigned exclusively to fire fighting.[197] For years uncontrolled fires in the coal beds of the public domain, especially in Colorado, Montana, North and South Dakota, Utah and Wyoming, have been burning. During the first year of the conservation program a camp of approximately two hundred men was established in the Little Thunder Basin of Wyoming to control the coal fires of that section.[198] The General Land Office placed this project under the immediate supervision of the Forest Service's field supervisory force,[199] which consisted of men who had had experience in coal mining and similar work.[200] Experienced members of the Geological Survey advised the fighters as to the methods of combatting the fires, while property owners, ranchers and other assisted in the work. The camp was established in June, 1933 and was abandoned the middle of October of the same year. In that time seven fires were completely extinguished and others treated in such a way that the probability of the breaking out of future fires is reduced to a minimum.[201]

The Soil Erosion Service was established in the Department of the Interior in October 1933. Its objectives are: (1) To show how erosion of agricultural land can be checked and largely controlled; and (2) to inaugurate a permanent national erosion-control program which will take care of the land erosion problem in this country.[202] The emergency conservation work is under the Branch of Planning which also utilizes the other branches of the Service. Directors in charge of regional districts carry on the field work. There are also district inspectors who inspect the progress of the conservation work and coordinate the various projects.[203] During the third camp period twenty-two regular and twelve drought relief Civilian Conservation Corps camps were assigned to the Soil Erosion Service. They were

located in eighteen states with only one state, Missouri, having more than three camps.[204] The project work is practically the same as the soil erosion control work of the Forest Service. It consists mainly in soil anchoring through revegetation; the planting of trees, especially cuttings of willows and cottonwoods on eroded land; and small dam construction.

In the third camp period seven Civilian Conservation Corps camps were established under the general supervision of the Bureau of Reclamation. They were all regular camps but one and were located in five states. Several of the projects were under the immediate supervision of the National Park Service.[205]

Project Administration: War Department

Conservation administration by the War Department, although comparatively small in extent, has several important projects which should be noted. Chief among them is the Winooski River Valley flood control work in Vermont under the direction of the Chief of Engineers. It is the largest flood control project undertaken by the Civilian Conservation Corps and has for its purpose the lessening of flood dangers to such towns as Barre, Middlesex, and Montpelier. Seven camps with a total of twenty-nine companies of World War veterans were established at or near these towns in July and August, 1933.[206] By the end of the first camp period the number of companies was reduced to twenty-eight and these were housed in six different camps.[207] During the third period the number was further reduced to twenty-two.[208] Most of the work will be completed during the fourth camp period.[209]

The composition and organization of these flood control companies are similar to the other veterans camps established throughout the nation. Two of the companies are composed of colored men with two white veterans in one, while there are from one to four colored veterans in several of the white companies.[210] The enrollment, averaging 4,300 is mostly from Delaware, New Jersey, New York and Vermont.[211] The enrollees, chosen without regard to age limits, are a part of the veterans' contingent, a distinct division of the Civilian Conservation Corps organization.[212] During the first camp period the companies, like the Junior company units, were administered by regular Army officers with one to four enlisted men attached to each company.[213] Later the average administrative personnel consisted of a captain and two lieutenants, all reserve officers, and in several camps one or two enlisted men.[214] The project supervisory force was very small in comparison to that of the regular conservation work. In September, 1933, the twenty-eight companies had only thirty-four supervisors. The number for each project varied with the number of companies in each particular camp. The company at Middlesex had four supervisors compared to fifteen for the fifteen companies located at Wrightsville.[215]

The War Department also has several companies working on military reservations and one in the Tennessee Valley Authority area. Two camps were established at Ft. Benning, Georgia, in June and December,

1933; one at Ft. McClellan, Alabama, and one at Ft. Bragg, North Carolina, also in June, 1933. All four camps are made up of colored Junior enrollees from the States mentioned and from South Carolina.[216] The Department's camp at Andersonville National Cemetery and Park in Georgia was approved early in July, 1934.[217]

Place of the Enrollees in Project Administration

The project supervisory personnel in all camps is assisted in its work by leaders and assistant leaders selected from the enrollees. On the average there are six leaders and twelve assistant leaders assigned to the technical service.[218] Their selection, demotion and pay has been treated in the chapter on administration of the camps. There are usually one or two leaders or assistant leaders, called squad leaders, assigned to a project foreman to aid in the direction of the work crews. The number of enrollees assigned to these work crews varies with the type of project assigned to it, and the number of men available for work each day. If the work is of a detailed nature there may be as few as four men in the crew. On projects such as road building and fire fighting the number often runs as high as twenty-five. The average for work crews is approximately fifteen.[219]

The enrollees, except in emergencies, work eight hours per day and five days a week. Their eight-hour day includes the lunch hour and an hour to travel to and from the work project. The lunch hour also includes the time required to go to and from the mess, whether it is served in the field or in camp. A minimum of six hours work on the job is required, even though the distance to and from the project requires more than an hour's travel. The usual work period is from Monday to Friday inclusive.[220] In case weather conditions or other causes disrupt this weekly schedule, the time is made up on the following Saturday. If the time lost exceeds the maximum daily work period, over-time is not allowed in order to make it up[221]

During emergencies, such as fire fighting and others affecting life and property, the men are subject to the call of the camp superintendent at any time. Their daily hours of work are determined by the Federal or State officer in charge of the emergency conservation work crews, in consultation with the company commander. Appropriate rest periods, not exceeding the overtime emergency work, are allowed at the conclusion of the emergency. When there is danger of forest fires the camp superintendent may request that all or part of the enrollees be held in camp after regular work hours and on non-working days.[222]

On some projects a certain amount of night work is being carried on in order to utilize fully heavy and expensive machinery. Where such work is essential, the camp superintendent and company commander are authorized to work out a schedule of working hours and meals for the special crews. The schedule is arranged so that, if necessary, four work shifts may be operated without much change in the regular routine. The hours of labor are the same as those which prevail for normal work days, and adequate safeguards against accidents are

maintained. Generally such schedules fit in with the normal camp routine and insure hot meals for the several shifts of men.[223]

Side camps, sometimes called sub or spike camps, are established, as the need arises, by most of the project administration agencies. They usually consist of two or more foremen and from thirty to sixty enrollees. Such camps are established in or near important work projects located too far from the main camp for the men to travel back and forth daily.[224] Sometimes side camps are located in or near the original Civilian Conservation Corps camp to complete project work started by the former camp or do additional work. Side camps in such locations generally utilize the old camp headquarters and enable the larger unit organization to move to projects where full time work can be carried on for a definite period. They are often located on projects which are abandoned when winter sets in before the completion of the project.[225] Arrangements for these camps are made by the field officers through the district and company commanders. Shelter, camp equipment, and subsistence, as well as clothing and blankets are provided by the Army from existing available stocks. If the Army cannot furnish the necessary equipment and supplies, the remainder is furnished by the technical administrative agencies from existing stocks or purchased with Emergency Conservation work funds. The technical agencies are also responsible for the transportation of equipment and supplies to and from the side camps.[226]

Conclusion

The Emergency Conservation Work organization, with its Director and several assistants, an Advisory Council and a system of inspectors and special investigators, is not an elaborate governmental agency, and was therefore easily established. In spite of the tremendous program under its supervision it has apparently functioned efficiently and smoothly. The same thing can be said of the selecting machinery, where both the overhead and field organizations were already in existence. Standards in the form of rules and regulations were all that were needed to guide the field organization in its work of selection. Very little, if any expansion of personnel and effort by the selecting agencies was necessary in order to carry out this part of the emergency conservation program.

When, on the other hand, camp and project administration are considered it is difficult, if not impossible, to decide which had the most important and the hardest problems to solve. Each is a necessary adjunct to the other and both are important features of Civilian Conservation Corps administration, as are the Emergency Conservation Work organization and the governmental selection machinery. Because of the quasi-military feature of camp administration and its greater contact with the general public, it has received wide publicity and project administration has consequently been looked upon by most people as a secondary part of the whole program. The results of camp administration are more immediate if not more evident than

those of project administration; the former deals with conservation of men while the latter deals with material resources.

Both camp and project administration had existing overhead and, for the most part, field organizations, and the expansion of these organizations, especially the field services was all that was necessary in order to carry out the conservation program. They deal with the same men, the camp administration mobilizes and conditions the men and teaches them how to play, while the project administration shows them how to work. Perhaps, in this respect, the problems of project administration are greater than those of camp administration. Yet, if one considers the longer time the enrollees are under the supervision of the camp personnel additional problems of an educational and religious nature are evident. An evaluation of these problems of administration and of the organization set up or used to solve them will be given in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV

AN EVALUATION OF CIVILIAN CONSERVATION CORPS ADMINISTRATION

Distinctive Features of Administrative Set-Up

The distinctive features of the governmental machinery set up to administer the emergency conservation work program are the office of Emergency Conservation Work, the Advisory Council, the system of liaison officers, inspectors and investigators, the decentralized State and local selecting agencies, the decentralized military camp administration organization and the largely centralized system of project administration. Perhaps in an evaluation of the project administration agencies the term concentrated as applied to governmental administration in France is more apt than centralized. In this sense concentrated means that little initiative or discretion is left in the hands of the field organization. It is, on the contrary, exercised by the overhead organization.[1] In this classification of the administrative set-up there is some overlapping on account of the large number of departments, services and agencies involved. This will be emphasized in the analysis of the distinctive features of the set-up.

The office of Emergency Conservation Work is one of the smallest agencies directly responsible to the President. In fact, if one excludes the usual office personnel of secretaries, stenographers, clerks, etc., it is nothing more than the office of the Director with three assistants, two special assistants, a safety engineer, and a special counsel. Such a limited personnel could not possibly operate so extensive a program as the emergency conservation work without utilizing other services and agencies. The work of the Director is that of a general manager. He receives general orders from the President and proceeds to carry them out through the various cooperating agencies.

It would be impossible for the Director to utilize these cooperating agencies without the assistance of the Advisory Council. This Council acts as a coordinating agency for the services connected with the program. Its function is advisory; no administrative authority is vested in it and actions upon its recommendations are optional with the Director. Instead of working through the Advisory Council the Director seeks its advice and cooperation in the execution of the program along lines laid down by the President in accordance with the Emergency Conservation Work Act.

Through the system of liaison officers, inspectors and special investigators the activities of the services concerned with the conservation program are further coordinated. These officials, especially the investigators, keep the Director informed of the camp and project administration. Their reports enable him to change or modify the programs to suit changing conditions and new ideas. These officials also help the field supervisory personnel to solve their problems in the light of the

policies formulated by the Washington Office. In other words, they are the intermediaries between the overhead and field organizations.

The decentralized system of selecting the enrollees was necessary in order to expedite the work program and to make use of existing governmental machinery as prescribed by the conservation act.[2] Besides, a new selecting agency organized by the Department of Labor would have been, in most cases, less familiar with the relief needs of a given community than a local organization already functioning. It was the desire for quick action, economy and efficiency in administration that caused the Department to make general policies of selection, establish State quotas and leave the detailed work to State and local agencies. Under general grants of power State agencies establish local quotas within the limits of the State's quota, and designate local agencies to select enrollees. The State agency's action is final unless appealed to the Washington Office. By using the decentralized existing relief agencies to select the enrollees the work goes on regardless of changes in the type of agency.[3]

No new feature of governmental machinery was set up by the War Department in its administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps. The decentralized army corps area organization was already functioning with military precision. The Department was anxious to see how such an organization, a post-war creation, would work in an emergency. With comparatively little increase in personnel, the enrollment, conditioning and transportation of over a quarter of a million men was completed in record time. By applying sound methods and policies developed since the War the mobilization of the Civilian Conservation Corps was accomplished with a minimum of expense and a maximum of efficiency.[4]

To administer the conservation corps camps only little change was made in the existing corps area organization. It is true that new district headquarters were established where the location of the camps was remote from existing army posts or headquarters. Camp organization was new, but it was patterned after the regular army company unit, with most of the military features eliminated or modified to suit the needs of a civilian army of workers rather than a company of soldiers. The military feature was further modified when early in the program reserve officers replaced most of the regular army personnel.

The decentralized military organization was somewhat modified on account of the whole program's being under more than one agency. Since the conservation corps is not in the true sense a military organization, the corps area commanders cannot act under grants of power, as in the case of the regular army organization, where they are placed in charge of the activities of their stations and the division heads are their subordinates. Instead, they have to consider the other cooperating agencies and often their actions are subject to review or modification by liaison officers and other representatives of the Emergency Conservation Work organization. Such a policy is essential where any

group of people are under the supervision of two or more administrative organizations at the same time.

It is hard to classify the project administration set-up as concentrated or deconcentrated because of the overlapping of its characteristics. Project administration by the Forest Service is of a concentrated nature. Here the organizations in charge of the work projects are sub-divisions of the corresponding service in the overhead organization rather than of the field station organization. It is true that the forest areas of the United States are divided into regions, like the Army corps areas, with a regional forester in charge of each district. Yet, under the regional forester is a supervisor who has charge of a particular forest and is responsible to the former for its management. Next in line is the forest ranger, primarily a field man, who is responsible to the supervisor. The project superintendent is under the supervision of the forest ranger. Thus all lines of responsibility and suggestion go up from the project superintendent to the overhead organization, while all lines of authrity come down through the regional forester, the forest supervisor, and the forest ranger to the project superintendent.

In the National Park Work project administration is highly concentrated. The country is not divided into regions like the army corps areas or the forest regions. Each park or monument has a regularly appointed superintendent or custodian who is responsible to the Washington Office of National Parks, Buildings and Reservations. He is controlled for the most part by the fact that action cannot be taken until authority has been specially granted by the overhead organization. Technically speaking, the project superintendent is responsible to the park or monument superintendent, where there is one, yet the supervisory personnel, liaison officers, inspectors and investigators really determine how the project work is to be carried out. This system is necessary because of the part which the several branches of the National Park Service, both overhead and field, play in the development of the National Park and Monument program. Besides, regulations for the guidance and governing of the field organization in charge of the emergency conservation work are issued by the Washington Office from time to time. These regulations are kept in handbook form and are subject to change by the proper authorities at any time. They cover practically every conceivable detail in project administration so that there are very few instances where the project superintendent or even the park or monument superintendent can act on his own initiative without some form of central control.

The State Park Work administration is of a decentralized nature. It is carried on more like project administration of the Forest Service than that of the National Park Work. The country is divided into five regions each in charge of a district officer assisted by a technical field staff similar to that of the National Park Work. Within each district there are State park officials who carry on the project work in accordance with the standards established by the Office of State Park Work in Washington. These State park officials are given complete

authority to act, within certain limits, as if the work were being financed and carried on by the State rather than by the Federal government. As long as the program is in accord with accepted park standards the State officials are free to plan and develop their projects. The State Park Work also has a force of inspectors, investigators and other officials similar to that of the other project administrative agencies to see that national park standards are met and to help in the development of the park program. Since the State park program is financed by the Federal government, final voice in the appointment and discharge of most of the State park work officials, the approval of work projects and other matters of a general nature is given to the Washington Office, either through its district personnel or through its overhead organization. Through an elaborate system of reports and its inspectorate system, the State Park Work organization of the National Park Service is in constant touch with all phases of State park conservation work.

Most of the project administration by the miscellaneous cooperating agencies is deconcentrated. That of the Office of Indian Affairs is, perhaps, more deconcentrated than any of the other administrative services. This deconcentration is due not only to the nature of the enrollees and the type of work to be performed but also to the experiment in Indian self-government, which the Indian Office is developing on the reservations. Such a system of administration, however, needs a great deal of patience and sympathetic guidance from the overhead organization. It may not prove economical, efficient and practical from the conservation standpoint but its ultimate results will probably outweigh immediate lost motion. To make the plan work careful selection and training of the supervisory personnel has been made an objective.

The administration of certain minor projects like those of the General Land Office, the Bureau of Biological Survey, the Bureau of Animal Industry, the Bureau of Reclamation, and the Soil Erosion Service in the Department of the Interior is highly concentrated. Of the projects mentioned, those of the General Land Office and the Bureau of Reclamation were the least concentrated. Direct supervision of the former was given to the Forest Service and was carried on similiarly to other projects of that Service, while some of the projects of the Bureau of Reclamation were under the supervision of the National Park Service. Of course, with them as with the other minor projects, general supervision by the Washington services is necessary because of the nature of the work performed.

Project administration by the War Department is, of course, mostly decentralized. Its work in Vermont, carried on by the Office of Chief of Engineers, is similar to that of any other regular army project work. Here the Army is in complete charge of the men and they are examined, disciplined and governed more like soldiers than civilians. The workers, being ex-soldiers, are used to this type of administration. The Department's administration of Junior colored enrollees on several military

reservations is quite similar to project administration by the Agriculture and the Interior departments already mentioned.

Critique of Administration

Woodrow Wilson once said that "administration in the United States must at all times be sensitive to public opinion."[5] An analysis of the administration of the Emergency Conservation Work program shows that its administration has been greatly affected by public opinion. When the idea of having the unemployed housed and fed by the Army was first proposed, many objections were made to the military feature of the plan.[6] As a result it was not favorably considered by the last "lame duck" Congress.[7] With the coming of the Roosevelt administration the economic condition of the country was such that public opinion demanded that immediate steps be taken to relieve the serious tension caused by unemployment. The proposal by the President for a civilian conservation army, made up largely of young unemployed men, to work in the nation's forests met with almost unanimous approval.

When a tentative outline of the Civilian Conservation Corps program was given to the public, much criticism was made of its administrative provisions.[8] In order to allay adverse criticism and give the project popular approval from the start, Congress, both in committee and on the floor, formulated a broad program of emergency conservation work, leaving the controversial features to be worked out by the President as he saw fit.[9] In this way almost unanimous public approval of the administrative set-up was secured as the program developed. Besides, changes of policy as well as of administration were made to suit changing conditions, which would not have been possible if the legislation authorizing the program had been less permissive. The granting of broad discretionary powers to the President in his administration of the program meant greater use of the ordinance making power. An examination of the executive orders directly and indirectly affecting the administration of the program shows not only the wide use made of this power but also the President's interest in the detailed administration of the project. Such an extensive use of the ordinance making power is in line with the trend of Federal administration which began during the World War.[10]

The act giving the President blanket authority to carry out the emergency conservation work program is also in line with the trend of Federal legislation.[11] Furthermore, it conforms to accepted principles of good government.[12] Where the program calls for more or less experimentation in administrative methods, it is necessary that the lawmaking body give the executive permissive authority to administer the program in accordance with the general policy outlined by it. The present program was an experiment of great magnitude. New administrative machinery had to be set up, and existing administrative services had to be changed, in many cases, in order to administer the program successfully.

No restrictions were placed upon the President as to the kind of organization to be set up to administer the conservation program. The only requirement made regarding administration was that existing departments and agencies be utilized.[13] The President, therefore, instead of placing the program in one of the executive departments, established the office of Director of Emergency Conservation Work[14] and made it directly responsible to him. Aside from his personal interest in the project, the President's plan was the logical one, since several services and agencies were to be utilized in its administration. Working directly under the President, the Director has the position of general supervisory manager of the whole program.

Such an administrative arrangement, although apparently successful in the Emergency Conservation Work program, is not generally good administrative practice.[15] The duties of the executive today are such that no administrative agency should be directly responsible to him. If the Director was the type of official who could not make most of the decisions without consultation with his superior, the President would be overburdened with details of administration and would have no time for questions of policy. Since the office of Director cannot logically be given to any one of the present executive departments on account of the overlapping of the services involved, the only alternative would be the creation of a department of public welfare, including this and similar organizations.

The President by executive orders has, however, given the Director final administrative authority in many instances,[16] but most of the regulations for carrying out the program are issued by the President.[17] This policy results in the administration of the project more in line with public opinion, because of the national viewpoint of the President as compared with the limited outlook of the Director. The President sees the project in its relation to the whole emergency program; the Director naturally looks upon it as one big job. A national perspective will probably result in the emergency conservation work's playing a greater part in the New Deal program that it would if its administration was placed in one of the ten departments.

In order to coordinate the various activities of the services and agencies involved in the conservation program, the Advisory Council was established. Such councils are not new in governmental administration and they are essential to the successful administration of programs administered by several services.[18] The President fixed the Council's composition and duties in the executive order creating it.[19] In conformity with accepted principles of administration,[20] the Council is merely an advisory organization. Its chief objective is to bring all the services administering the program together under a common head, the office of Director of Emergency Conservation Work. Administrative authority is, therefore, not divided and the Director acts upon recommendations emanating from his Council.

No other peacetime project of the Federal government ever had as many agencies engaged in its administration as has the emergency conservation program. Theoretically, all the operations dealing with the

program should be brought together in the same service.[21] This is impossible and impracticable where existing agencies are largely used and where the types of work to be performed vary widely. An anaylsis of the cooperative administrative agencies of the conservation program shows the wisdom of the present set-up.

The Department of Labor, with its decentralized relief organization already functioning, was the logical service to select the Junior enrollees and the experienced woodsmen. Few additions or changes had to be made in its existing field or overhead administrative set-up. Selecting the men was just another way of taking care of the relief rolls. The same thing was true of the Veteran's Administration in selecting the ex-soldiers. It has been handling veterans' problems since the War and the selection of unemployed needy veterans for conservation work enables the Administration to solve its most serious problem, unemployment. The selection of the Indians by the Office of Indian Affairs was a new job, but it was in line with the Office policy of making them self supporting.

There has been some criticism of certain of the requirements of applicants for the Civilian Conservation Corps. Some critics thought there should be no maximum age limits, as there were as many men above twenty-five as under that age needing employment.[22] Such criticism would have been valid if the government had not provided other means of employment for the older group of needy unemployed. The inclusion of men of almost any age furthermore, would have necessitated segregation of the enrollees according to age groups, since it would have been socially unwise to place large numbers of the old and young in the same camps. The government officials saw this objection in providing for the veterans and made their camps separate from those of the Junior enrollees.[23] As there were so few veterans compared with the total enrollment, their segregation was easily effected without much difficulty or extra expense. This would not be the case where the number of middle aged men approximated that of the Junior workers. The same objections can be raised to the inclusion of a large group of married men in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Perhaps the present age limits providing too wide a group range and the maximum limit should be several years lower, but age limits are set arbitrarily and it is hard to determine the range which gives the desired group in a complex society.

The requirement that preference be given to applicants wishing to allot $25.00 or more to their dependents as against those who would allot a smaller amount received much criticism. Such a requirement virtually amounts to compulsory allotment and on its face looks like an infringement upon the workers' liberty. Yet, when the immediate purpose of the emergency conservation program and the conditions of employment are considered, such a requirement is necessary for the best interests of all concerned. Without it the relief burdened agencies would not be materially aided in their problem of relieving the needy unemployed. Neither would there be that spirit of financial equality

which permeates the camps. Such a spirit is essential for the successful administration of the camps and it can easily be developed where the necessaries of life are provided and the workers are given enough allowance to take care of their additional needs.

The conditional allotment enrollment idea is new in the Federal government's dealing with individuals. It has, however, been practiced in the Government's grants-in-aid to the States, where money is allotted on condition that the receiving State either match the allotment or do certain things with the money.[24] The same principle is involved in the enrollee allotment requirement. The worker receives for his work $30.00 cash allowance, the necessaries of life, and the educational, recreational, and religious opportunities offered by the camp. For these benefits he returns an average of $25.00 of his allowance in the form of an allotment to his dependents.[25]

Another objection to the eligibility requirements of the enrollees is that women are excluded from the program.[26] The argument for women's camps are just as plausible as those for men's camps. The number of women needing employment is, perhaps, just as large or larger than that of men. But the lack of suitable productive work and the magnitude of the whole program if women were included prevented the establishment of women's camps. The physical, economic, moral and social benefits of such camps to women are evident and women's camps may become a part of the program in the future. There are several girls' camps throughout the country operated, for the most part, by private organizations and the agitation for similar federal camps is strong.[27]

The methods of selecting the enrollees from the many applicants has generally proven satisfactory. As the selections are made on the basis of fitness and the greatest possible good to the community the case method is followed. In this way the selecting agency can discover the best applicants and as a rule such enrollees have been chosen. It is true that there have been some undesirable enrollees who have had to be weeded out of the camps. But it is debatable whether these men were delinquent before going to camp or were influenced by agitators after enrollment. A study of the riots and trouble caused by these undesirable workers points to the latter condition. Generally this trouble ceased as soon as the rebellious leaders were removed from camp.[28]

The administration of the camps by the War Department can be justified, although in the early stages of the program much criticism was raised to giving this function to the Army.[29] Under the plan first outlined, the Army's work was limited as to scope and duration. It was to receive, immunize, clothe, equip and organize the enrollees into companies and then turn them over to the proper officials of the Agriculture and the Interior departments near designated conservation projects.[30] These departments were to have control of all other functions, including those of establishing and administering the camps as well as the project administration. Because of the decentralized corps area system and the Army's experience in organizational work it was

able to comply with its part of the program.

By April, 1933, it became apparent that the establishment and administration of hundreds of camps throughout the country represented a task of such magnitude that it must be done by agencies specifically trained and equipped for such work.[31] Thereupon the Army, under the general supervision of the Director of the Emergency Conservation Work, was given complete control of the Civilian Conservation Corps project, except in matters of enrollee selection and work project administration. This transfer of functions has been justified by the Army's record in the enrollment and conditioning of the men, and the administration of the camps. As a result nation-wide approval has been given to the Army's part in the program.

The methods of administration used by the Army in enrolling and conditioning of the men were, of course, more of a military than of a civilian nature. This was to be expected because it made use of the ways and means that were familiar and which had given satisfactory results in similar tasks. Yet at the same time its administrative methods were changed as much as possible to suit the needs of a civilian corps rather than those of a military unit. The Army realized that in administering the camps it must be sensitive to public opinion in order to make a success of the job. This fact was the harder to realize because of the use of clothing, means of transportation, conditioning camps and other things of a military nature. If the appearance of the camps was militarized how much harder it would be to make administrative methods seem non-military.

From an analysis of the administration of the Civilian Conservation Corps camps one may conclude that the administration organization and most of the administrative personnel are military, while the methods used are non-military. Such a dual sort of administration calls for camp administrative regulations which eliminate for the most part any military features. It also means that the military personnel in charge of the camps must think of themselves as civilian officials supervising civilian conservation camps. This mixture of military efficiency and civilian freedom has apparently worked very well.[32] The regimentation which was greatly feared at first has turned out to be nothing more than the efficient management of small self-contained communities of men by officials with military experience and efficiency.

The methods of camp administration, both in theory and in practice, are far from being militaristic, as some people feared they might be.[33] There were objections to the oath of enrollment requirement. The oath itself contains nothing of military significance, either with regard to present or future relations to the Army. It merely makes the enrollee cognizant of his duties and responsibilities as a member of the Civilian Conservation Corps. In taking it he affirms that the information given in his individual record is correct and that he agrees to obey those in authority and observe the rules and regulations of the camp. An oath requirement is nothing new for governmental employees. Even school teachers in some States are required to take an

oath to support the Constitution of the State and of the United States. The psychological effect of the oath requirement is such that the enrollee begins his work in a serious frame of mind, and as a result the success of the camp is enhanced from the beginning.

There is nothing in the regulations governing camp administration that is contrary to sound principles of civil administration. As the status of all the members of the Corps is that of civilians, they are delivered to the civil authorities for violations of the criminal law. In addition, it is necessary in order to provide equality of opportunity and privileges for the men and to maintain the efficiency and good order of the camp, to give certain disciplinary authority to the company commander. His authority is limited and the kinds of punishment clearly outlined.[34] The procedure for offenses requiring more than admonition as punishment follows accepted principles of administrative law. The forms of punishment are reasonable, the severest being dishonorable discharge and forfeit of cash allowance and allotment due the delinquent. The other forms are like those practiced by parents on their unruly children. This system, in the words of President Roosevelt, "is comparable to the penalties customarily imposed by management of industrial enterprises in order to maintain efficiency of production and equality of opportunity for those employed."[35] An analysis of the violations of the law and the infractions calling for dishonorable discharge from camp shows that the behavior of the enrollees compares favorably with that of any small community.[36] Perhaps the secret of this behavior was given by General King when he said, "Men who volunteer for work in order to provide food, clothing and shelter for their families are naturally going to be of a high type. Control of such a group is easy with proper leaders."[37]

No military training or discipline is permitted in the camps, and apparently this requirement is strictly adhered to. The wisdom of such a requirement is questionable, as the benefits derived from military training and discipline in a modified form would be invaluable to the enrollee both in camp and after discharge. It would in most cases rid him of that slouchiness of bearing characteristic of most of the enrollees. Such training would not be any more compulsory than the voluntary allotment requirement or military training in land grant colleges. The elimination of military training and discipline again shows the sensitivity of the program to public opinion.

The small administrative personnel assigned to each camp necessitates a form of quasi-self government by the enrollees, with the Army officers and educational adviser playing the roles of supervisors. Such an organization was authorized in the President's executive order on the administration of the emergency conservation work, when provision was made for leaders and assistant leaders from among the enrollees.[38] Some of the leaders are in charge of the barracks or tents, while others do other administrative work. In many camps the enrollees administer their own punishment for minor infractions of the regulations. This so-called "kangaroo court" system, like student self-

government, has proven satisfactory in some cases and detrimental in others. The extent to which self-government is so practiced depends largely upon the type of commanding officer and the class of enrollees in the camp. Of course the same thing is true of any form of administrative organization. But the extent to which quasi-self-government is practiced in the Civilian Conservation Corps camps shows that it is practicable as well as economical. The development of the qualities of leadership and of self-reliance among the enrollees may prove invaluable to them when they return to normal life.

The housing facilities, tents and barracks, are the traditional standard army types. Generally their composition and arrangement have proven satisfactory as temporary living quarters. In some cases, however, the tents have not been securely pitched nor the barracks substantially built. As a result wind storms have played havoc with them and accidents, sometimes fatal and physical suffering and discomforture have been the outcome.[39] In such sections of the country where violent windstorms are prevalent, substantial housing should be provided. Several enrollees have lost their lives as a result of fires breaking out in the wooden barracks, and whole camps have thus been destroyed.[40] The chief cause of these fires has been overheated stoves which have been fired heavily in order to keep the barracks warm. The building of warmer barracks or providing existing ones with additional stoves would remedy this condition. Shifts of night firemen for them might also be practicable to guard against danger. Lengthening of the distance between barracks would greatly lessen the danger of whole camps' being wiped out when fires occur.

Very little criticism has been made of the kind of camp rations and the way they are served. Health statistics of practically all camps show that the workers have gained in weight and that sickness and accident admissions compare favorably with those of normal life. The army cafeteria style of serving the food saves time and enables the men to have hot food, both in the field and in camp, with a minimum of service.

Perhaps the greatest criticism of the whole administrative procedure is the non-segregation of the white enrollees from the colored. It is true that there are distinct colored as well as white camps but many camps have from one to fifteen colored enrollees, and in some of the colored camps there are one or more white men. In most of these mixed camps there is no attempt at segregation. In some, however, the colored men occupy separate barracks if their number warrants this arrangement. The mixture of white and colored enrollees creates problems hard for the camp commanders to solve. Enrollees who do not believe in social equality resent eating, sleeping and working alongside the negro. As a result the negro's lot may be very unhappy in his isolated environment. The placing of negro or even mixed camps in certain communities, especially in the South, has caused local officials to request the camp commanders to keep the negroes out of their towns. Consequently there arises ill feeling between these camps and towns

which is detrimental to the success of the project in those sections. It is right, as the law provides, that there should be no discrimination on account of race or color, but the problems of the camp officials would be less if the two races were entirely segregated. If colored camps were located near large negro centers instead of near prdominantly white communities or in places where racial feeling is not so great, the racial problem might be solved satisfactorily.

In the beginning the failure to provide adequate educational facilities was criticized.[41] Consequently the formal educational program of the camps, unique in its inception and methods, was organized in the second camp period. Never before has there been such a program of adult education with continuation studies which enable the student to pursue either his elementary, secondary or college training. Many enrollees whose educational careers were cut short by the results of the depression have taken advantage of this opportunity. The program is also planned to take care of those who do not desire to complete their formal education but wish to further their knowledge in special fields. The educational program has been a further help in rebuilding the morale of the men.

The diversity of educational training of the enrollees naturally called for a type of program quite different from the traditional graded class system. In most camps there are almost as many gradations as students and they range from the illiterate to the college graduate. As a result the camp educational adviser discarded the formal class procedure and adopted the individual type of education. Where camp facilities and personnel were inadequate for the educational needs, local libraries, school plants and personnel, and even college extension courses and regular college classes have been supplemented in order to provide a well rounded program, based upon the needs of the men. Former Commissioner of Education, Dr. Zook, in commenting upon the possibilities of the program said, "I look upon this as a program which may prove of the greatest significance in the expansion of adult education. If the conservation camps continue we may be able to develop a program which will be a new departure in American education."[42]

Little can be said in the way of destructive criticism of the administrative organization and methods used in project administration. For the most part the emergency conservation program was an extension of the national forestry and the national park and monument programs. Existing overhead and field organizations were used with additions to the personnel and changes in methods to suit the enlarged number of new laborers. Similar work had been done on a limited scale before the emergency program came into existence. With a skeleton organization to supervise the work projects and methods easily adaptable to a large number of workers, the task of project administration was not so difficult. The chief problems were the selection of suitable projects and the planning of the period, the monthly, and the daily work schedules. These problems called for an enlargement of the technical supervisory personnel which was supplied

for the most part by recent and prospective college graduates of the technical schools.

As the enrollees were only under the jurisdiction of the project administration during working hours the responsibility and duties of that organization for the immediate success of the program was small compared to that of the camp administrators. However, it was largely responsible for the ultimate objective of the program; for the success of the whole project will finally be judged by the conservation results, which will be evident long after the emergency feature of the program will have been forgotten. The dual relationship of the project and camp administration to the enrollees presented problems which might have wrecked the whole program had it not been for the cooperative methods worked out between them. Much of the success of this enterprise has been due to the cooperative spirit of the camp and project administrators.[43] Naturally friction arose between the two administrative organizations, but for the most part amicable adjustments have been made. The successful working together of these very different administrative systems is a strong argument for cooperative administration in the future.

The hours of labor, the schedule of working days and the methods of administration on the projects have proven satisfactory. A comparison of the results accomplished by the Civilian Conservation Corps workers with those of the Civil Works Administration and the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, even in similar work, shows a greater amount of work accomplished in the same time as well as a more widespread popular approval. The workers in both cases were from the same class of people and the success of the one and the apparent failure of the other has been due for the most part to the administrative personnel and the methods used. Most of the credit for the success of the whole emergency conservation program is due to the efficient and well trained administrative personnel.[44]

The method of using a certain number of the enrollees as leaders and assistant leaders in carrying on the work projects proved as successful in project administration as in camp administration. The ultimate results of this method will perhaps be far greater in the case of the project leaders than in the case of most of the camp leaders, since the opportunity for forestry work will enable them to make use of their knowledge and experience gained in these positions. This will be especially true since the Civilian Conservation Corps program has been extended and expanded, because the leaders of the initial project will have the opportunity to become the foremen and supervisors of the future program.[45] Even under the present program many of the enrollees have been promoted to supervisory positions.

Conclusion

It has not been the purpose of this chapter to explain all of the features of the administration of the emergency conservation work program or to evaluate all the forms and methods of administration.

It has been rather the evaluation of the distinguishing features, especially those which are new in whole or in part, and their analysis according to accepted principles and practices of administration. Very little stress is laid upon the existing overhead or field organizations and their methods used in conservation administration.

In view of the fact that the emergency conservation work program was an extension, for the most part, of existing forestry and park and monument programs, most of the criticisms attacked administrative methods rather than administrative organization. A critique of existing administrative organizations used in the furtherance of the program does not come within the purview of this work. On the whole, it will be noted that the methods used have been successful. They have been applied to the problems presented with the idea that it is a condition and not a theory which confronts the administrators. As a result changes have been made to meet changing conditions and new situations. It will be noted that an evaluation of methods was not made on the basis of their furtherance of the social and economic results of the program or the cost of the project, but strictly from the administrative viewpoint. The social and economic consequences will be considered next and in relation to the cost of the whole program.

CHAPTER V

SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF THE CONSERVATION POLICY

Social Objectives and Results

The immediate objective of the emergency conservation work is, in the words of the President, to "eliminate to some extent at least the threat that enforced idleness brings to spiritual and moral stability."[1] This immediate and major objective of restoring confidence and of building men has been recognized and emphasized by those in charge of the project from the very beginning. Congressman Healy, in speaking of the effects of the depression upon the youth of the nation pictured the need of such a program. He said in part:

> Countless thousands of these young men saw their expectations of a proper schooling and education brought to a premature and untimely end. Countless other thousands, who had just left behind them the shelter of their Alma Maters, found themselves thrust into a hostile and unkind world. . . . Shut off entirely from welfare aid . . . in most instances entirely shut out of even the possibility of employment . . . it was indeed a situation to demoralize even men of more mature years and less plastic and impressionable minds. . . . This was surely a sorry and direful condition, fraught with the possibilities of grave and most serious consequences, not alone to the future of these many thousands of young men but also to the future of our Nation.[2]

The best way to accomplish the major objective of the conservation program was to give these thousands of needy young men worthwhile employment under wholesome surroundings. Behind them lay months, even years of enforced idleness, and privation and hunger was not uncommon. Most of these men had been recipients of charity or were members of families dependent upon relief. Some were paroled prisoners or delinquent boys. Others were nomadic boys hitch-hiking North, South, East and West with no apparent destination in view. Many were college or high school students whose educational opportunities were cut short by the depression. From such a cosmopolitan group of young men and veterans the Civilian Conservation Corps was made up.

In cooperation with the project administrative agencies, it was the Army's job to take from 250,000 to 350,000 of those underfed, and for the most part untrained men, every six months and acclimate them to a new environment. This period of readjustment was the most difficult the enrollees had to face. Many of the city-bred had never set foot on forest soil, let alone being acquainted with such forest equipment and tools as the axe, cross-cut saw, canthook, tractor, mattock, dynamite, etc., Quite a few had never been away from home before. The solitude and silence of the great outdoors were in violent contrast to the bright lights and familiar noises of their home cities. As a result many of the

boys became homesick before they began to "shave, trim and massage the national forests, reforest and afforest the bare places which nature had forgot and neglected, and debug pest-ridden trees."[3] Their homesickness was intensified by the effects of smallpox and typhoid vaccinations, which delayed their work in the forests for several days.

The problem of building men was all the harder to solve because of the variety of occupations to which the enrollees were trained. In the camps there were former sculptors, bank clerks, postal clerks, miscellaneous clerks, blacksmiths, barbers, electricians, telegraph operators, real estate men, farmers, woodsmen, doctors and lawyers, and in fact men of almost every occupation or profession imaginable. It was the problem of the administrative agencies to provide these men with the opportunity to re-establish their faith in the future as well as the faith of the relatives and friends in the men themselves. The results of the Civilian Conservation Corps show that in the main the major objective of the emergency conservation work program has been accomplished.

Appreciating the maxim of Napoleon that "an army travels on its stomach," the camp administrators applied this principle to the Civilian Conservation Corps. Generous helpings of well-cooked wholesome food, together with comfortable sleeping quarters, and regular hours of play, sleep and work, soon transformed many thin and pale recruits into healthier, bronzed-faced men. Most of the men have shown marked physical improvement. A weight test conducted on more than 15,000 enrollees from all over the country indicated an average gain of more than seven and a half pounds per enrollee.[4] Some men gained from ten to twenty-five pounds. The average gain in height was 2.77 inches.[5]

The health of the members of the Civilian Conservation Corps has been taken care of by standard practices of work, sanitation and health. Periodic medical examinations and approximately daily medical attention as well as the especial observance of sanitary practices kept the danger of disease to a minimum. Cooperation with State and local health officials prevented, in most cases, the spread of epidemics to neighboring towns, and vice versa. During the first year of the conservation project the admission rate, constituting an absence from work of twenty-four hours or longer, was higher than that of the Regular Army. The average was 1.21 times per year for each enrollee reported sick or unable to work because of injury.[6] The first half of the year there were 74,261 cases of disease admissions and 25,370 cases of injury admissions.[7] Conditions contributing to the high admission rate were the unfamiliarity of many of the men with conservation work and out-door living, the severity of the 1933-34 winter and the diligent reporting and excusing from work of minor cases of sickness and injuries.[8] General admissions for the third camp period totaled 171,217 or 1,141 per one thousand men per year. The ratio of disease admissions to injuries was practically the same as that of the first period or seventy-five and twenty-five per cent respectively.[9]

The death rate per one thousand men is about the same as, and probably somewhat lower than, the mortality at age nineteen predicted

in the first year table of the Select American Men Mortality Table. This table is from one to three times as strict as the American experience table on which nearly all life insurance premiums are computed.[10] There were eighty-nine deaths caused by disease the first camp period, two hundred and six the second,[11] and two hundred and five the third.[12] The principal causes of death by disease have been pneumonia, appendicitis, and endocarditis.[13] Deaths from injury were one hundred and thirty-eight, one hundred and seventy-eight, and two hundred and thirty-one in the first, second, and third camp periods respectively.[14] The chief causes of such deaths were automobile and railroad accidents and accidental drowning.[15]

The mounting toll of accidental deaths showed the need for remedial measures. As a result Director Fechner ordered that a Safety Program be conducted throughout the Emergency Conservation Work personnel. He placed a Safety Engineer in charge of the campaign[16] and on June 4, 1934, a safety program submitted by the new engineer was considered and endorsed by the Advisory Council.[17] The program was divided into two divisions; namely, the eliminating of physical hazards, consisting of elimination of all hazards covering all accdents except those inherent in human nature; and the minimizing of human hazards, which includes the education of all enrollees to know and avoid danger.[18] A weekly summary of all accidents occuring to the enrollees is submitted by the company commander to the proper authorities. It provides an adequate check-up of the progress of the safety first campaign.[19]

The campaign includes the issuance of safety bulletins and posters for each camp, swimming regulations, rules for the wearing of goggles, suggestions for the prevention and treatment of snake-bites, excavation and trench construction regulations, construction and maintenance of scaffolding suggestions, rules to reduce or eliminate electrical hazards, rules as to the use of water crafts by enrolled men, precautions against chiggers and ticks, fire prevention "don'ts," and safety precautions to eliminate motor accidents and those peculiar to winter conditions.[20]

First aid classes are also organized and each enrollee is given the standard course of fifteen hours as prepared by the American Red Cross. Red Cross certificates are issued to enrollees completing the course satisfactorily.[21] By January 1, 1935, a total of 26,684 enrollees had been awarded these certificates by the Red Cross. The graduates were distributed in every state in the union and in the District of Columbia.[22] The immediate effect of this campaign will have an important bearing upon the results of the Civilian Conservation Corps.[23] The ultimate result, however, cannot be computed, since it will be determined in the use the men make of their safety first knowledge, gained in camp, when they return to normal life. The possible social consequences are far reaching and incalculable.

Perhaps the most noteworthy achievement and the most beneficial result of the Civilian Conservation Corps program has been the development of good citizenship among the enrollees. The President, in em-

phasizing the spiritual values of the project, said, "through you the nation will graduate a fine group of strong young men, clean living, trained to self-discipline and above all, willing and proud to work for the joy of working."[24] In order to accomplish this objective an educational, recreational and religious program was included in the emergency conservation program.

The results of the educational feature of the program are apparent, although not calculable in dollars and cents. The greatest educational values are acquired by the men through their work in the forests, monuments and parks, and the experience gained as members of their small camp communities. They have not only received a practical course of forest nature study but have gained a keener respect for the contribution which conservation makes to the development and maintenance of the national welfare. As a reward for their work in conserving the forests, the members of every Civilian Conservation Corps company have been made honorary members of the Forest Workers Section of the American Tree Association. A certificate, printed with a green background showing a stand of forest trees with a reproduction of the nation's capitol beneath it, is sent to each company.[25]

In their contacts with the administrative personnel, both camp and project, as well as with their fellow workers, the enrollees learn some of the valuable lessons of life. They learn to give and take, that honesty, sobriety and truthfulness are the best policies, and above all how to live with others. The deeds of heroism and daring performed by these workers would compare favorably with those achieved on the field of battle. They include the saving of human life, even at the sacrifice of one's own, saving of property, cool-headed action in fighting forest and camp fires, rescuing drowning persons and prompt action in saving life during floods and after serious accidents.[26] The Director of Emergency Conservation Work has shown his appreciation of the courageous and meritorious service of his men by personal letters of commendation to them or to their families.[27]

The so-called formal education of the enrollees has not only aided in achieving the spiritual objectives of the program but has enabled the men to overcome the limitations of their educational opportunities. Those who entered the camps as illiterates are taught to read and write before leaving camp. Others have advanced in particular studies, and some have earned high school or college credit during their enlistment. Many of the boys have not only taken advantage of the educational opportunities offered to them while in camp but have also been enabled to continue their high school or college education with the cash allowance saved while members of the Corps. The social consequences of the adult educational project are far reaching and the beneficial results are immediate as well as remote.

The recreational feature of the conservation program is closely connected with the educational. Provision for the welfare of the men was made early in the program, as the prohibition of military training in the camps necessitated an immediate and comprehensive program

to keep the men occupied during their leisure time. The program called for well rounded athletic, amusement and other recreational activities.[28] With plenty of leisure time on their hands the enrollees soon learned how to spend it to the best advantage. Many of them who had never played were taught how to play. Some of them learned the lessons of team-work and good sportsmanship for the first time. The athletic contests carried on within the camp and with neighboring camps and towns in the various sports built up the morale of the enrollees more than any other feature of the whole program. Besides the athletic contests there was a good camp library for those who desired to spend their time reading. For those who loved the great outdoors no better opportunity could be given them to study it than the camp environment. When the immediate objectives of the conservation program are forgotten, perhaps the greatest result credited to the whole project will be that it taught the youth of America how and where to play.

The religious feature of the welfare program, although little emphasized, has been adequately provided for. The enrollees have had the opportunity to receive religious guidance from representatives of the denominations of their preference. They are permitted to attend religious services in adjacent towns, and in isolated locations representatives of the churches have been brought to camp to hold services for the men of their respective creed or denomination. The religious welfare program is under the general supervision of the Army chaplains.[29] They are generally Reserve officers[30] who are stationed at district headquarters. They assist in the arrangement of the religious programs for the camps and secure local and visiting representatives of the churches represented in the camps to conduct the services.[31] When outside men cannot be secured the services are conducted by members of the administrative personnel or by the enrollees themselves. As there is no discrimination on account of religion, the personnel of most camps consists in men of practically every creed or denomination found in America.

The advantages to be obtained by the enrollees are summarized by Colonel John S. Chambers, quartermaster for the Eight Corps Area headquarters, as follows:

> When you stop to think that every C. C. C. enrollee has a nice warm, comfortable, well-lighted barracks to live in; plenty of bedding to keep him warm; that his food is of the best, plentiful in quantity and variety, well cooked, with plenty of calories and vitamins, and includes milk butter, eggs, vegetables, meats, bread, cake, pies, and ice cream; that he has plenty of warm clothes in the winter and cool clothes in the summer; that he has books and magazines to read; a nice big room, where they have in many companies games of all sorts, pianos, and radios; that he has an educational instructor in the camp and can take any course from his A B C's up to the equivalent of a Ph. D. in a college course; that he gets an opportunity to move around to different sections of the country and see some of the United States; and that he has money to spend and money to send home, perhaps you can begin to realize some of the benefits to the men in these C. C. C. camps. In addition to that, he has an

> Army officer to look after the housekeeping and homekeeping of the camp, a doctor to take care of him when he is sick and to keep him well. If he is ambitious to become a "Babe" Ruth or a "Red" Grange, they have baseball, football, basketball, etc.; or if he likes the tamer sport of pitching quoits, he can pitch horseshoes.[32]

In spite of the universally approved benefits derived from camp life there are disadvantages which should be considered. The absence of family life and the segregation of a large number of men are not, ordinarily conducive to the best social environment. Of course the same condition prevails in most colleges where the men are housed in dormitories. However, very little, if any, criticism has been made of the camp environment. Perhaps the occupational, educational and recreational activities take up so much of the men's time that there is little opportunity for undesirable consequences to develop.

Economic Objective and Results

The primary purpose of the emergency conservation program, the relief of widespread distress and unemployment, has both a social and an economic objective. In it more tangible results are evident than in the achievement of any of the other objectives. Within a few months after the launching of the program more than a quarter of a million men, most of them from families on relief rolls, had been transferred to the camps. Here they earned their own livelihood and a cash allowance of from $30.00 to $45.00 per month. The majority of the enrollees, having agreed to allot a portion of their pay, generally $25.00 per month, to their dependents, began to contribute substantially to the support of their families. During the first camp period approximately 350,000 men were enrolled at one time or another. Added to this number were 15,000 members of the supervisory personnel, making a total of 365,000 men receiving employment through Emergency Conservation Work funds. "It is estimated that between 1,400,000 and 1,750,000 persons derived direct benefits totaling $7,500,000 monthly at maximum strength or $33,750,000" for the first camp period. These benefits were distributed in every county and state in the Union, and consequently lightened the burdens of local relief agencies.[33]

By the end of the first year approximately 488,000 enrolled men, 50,000 skilled mechanics and laborers, 20,000 supervisory and facilitating personnel, 8,000, Reserve officers, and 650 educational advisers had received employment for varying lengths of time.[34] The small turnover of enrolled men was due to the re-enrollment of 175,000 of the initial enrollees for another camp period.[35] An average of $6,500,000 in cash allowances was divided each month among an average of 300,000 dependent families.[36] By the end of the year some $72,484,125 had been alloted by the enrollees to feed, shelter and clothe hundreds of thousands of their needy dependents.[37] At the end of the third camp period this allotment had reached the sum total of approximately $118,750,000 out of approximately $142,500,000 paid the enrollees in barrack camps.[38] By April 1, 1935, the total amount allotted to dependents of the enrollees since the beginning of the project was approximately $160,000,000

directly benefiting more than 3,000,000 people. In addition to lightening Federal, State and local relief loads by the allotments mentioned approximately 1,070,000 enrollees, and 90,000 additional men had been employed in conservation work, for varying lengths of time.[39]

Service in the Civilian Conservation Corps is not "an open sesame to employment and preferment" for those honorably discharged, as is the "labor service pass" given members of the compulsory labor service army of Germany.[40] However, the number of conservation workers discharged to accept private employment is highly gratifying, even though unemployment has not made an appreciable decline during the past two years. During the first camp period 18,377 men were permitted to leave camp to accept outside employment. The monthly record for the second period, beginning with 4,927 for October, showed an average increase of 1,000 per month to February 1, 1934.[41] At that time the total number discharged to accept employment had reached 44,629.[42] There was a considerable slump in the monthly average for February and April but beginning with May an average of 10,000 per month has been maintained.[43] By September, 1934, the sum total discharged to accept outside employment was 105,885.[44]

Follow-up surveys, conducted by the Research, Statistics and Finance Division of the Federal Employment Relief Administration, indicate that employment opportunities for former enrollees are becoming greater as the program progresses. The first survey, conducted during the winter of 1933-34, found that out of a total of 92,459 former first camp enrollees investigated 18,122 had secured employment, while the second survey, conducted during the summer of 1934, showed 40,326 out of 110,741 former enrollees of the second camp period working.[45] Besides showing that the proportion of employed men was twice as great for the former winter period enrollees as for those of the first summer period, the reports show the following important facts: First, the proportional increase was evident in every state. Secondly, the increase was not entirely seasonal. Third, practically all the workers had secured employment in private industry. Fourth, in eight states over half of the first winter term enrollees were working, and in Nevada nearly two-thirds. Fifth, in eighteen states the employed proportion of the first winter camp enrollees more than doubled that of the first summer camp members. Sixth, in six of these states the increase amounted to from seventy-five per cent to one hundred per cent in each state; while in the remainder it ranged from fifty to seventy-five per cent. Finally, in only five states was the increase less than twenty-five per cent, the lowest being seven per cent in Nebraska.[46]

The results of the ultimate objective of the emergency work program, the protection and improvement of forests, parks, watersheds and other natural resources, cannot be measured in dollars and cents. They are, however, easily discernable, and estimates and records of their worth aid in showing the present and future value of the conservation project. The figures on the work accomplished reveal that for the first time, massed man-power has been utilized on an unpre-

cendented scale in reducing the enormous yearly losses caused by disease, fire, insects and rodents. More than one hundred different types of work, ranging from guard rail construction to flood control, are being carried on by the several project administrative agencies in national, state and private forests, national parks and monuments, state parks, municipally owned lands, Indian reservations, public lands, Army and Navy reservations and Alaska, Hawaii, Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands.[47] Most of the enrollees have been working upon projects providing for the protection and improvement of forested lands, forest stand improvement, the prevention of soil erosion and fire fighting.

Among the major achievements of the first twenty-two months of the conservation work projects are the following:[48]

New telephone lines	miles	29,787
Telephone lines maintained	do	43,234
Fighting forest fires	man-days	1,697,555
New fire breaks	miles	34,714
Roadside and trailside clean up	do	28,248
Fire hazards reduced	acres	1,038,373
Forest stand improvement	do	1,643,575
New truck trails	miles	48,178
Truck trails maintained	do	76,157
Trees planted		266,467,000
Rodent control	acres	10,769,204
Tree and plant disease control	do	3,719,383
Insect pest control	do	4,305,949
Erosion control check dams		1,025,741
Public camp ground facilities		36,138

Although not a part of the daily work schedule, fighting fires has become an important part of the work of the Civilian Conservation Corps. The Secretary of Agriculture informed the President that the fire record for 1933 was one of the best ever recorded for the National Forests. The damage was approximately $325,000, which was less than seventeen per cent of the average annual fire loss during the previous five-year period.[49] The record in California is characteristic of the work accomplished. In that state there was a reduction in costs of fire-fighting of ever eighty-five per cent and in acreage burned forty-five per cent.[50] Director Camerer, of the National Park Service, reported that the reduction of forest fire loss in the national parks was thirty-seven per cent over that of the previous year.[51] Estimates are not available for the 1934 fire season, but Director Fechner stated "that fire fighting expense and acreage burned over in the one hundred and sixty-three million acres of national forest lands has been held below the record of other comparable years, despite the driest summer in decades."[52] Both the Forest Service and the National Park Service attribute the reduction of fire losses largely to the presence of the conservation workers and their fire protection work. Lightning was a principle cause of fire, from forty to forty-five were started in the Lassen National Forest in California, on June 15, and again on July 3, 1934. Fire damage in the national parks was negligible with the exception of unusual conflagrations in the Mesa Verde National Park, in and near the Sequoia National Park, and near the Grand Teton National Park.[53]

The development and improvement, for recreational purposes, of the national parks and monuments and state parks as well as national forests has also been a major achievement of the conservation program. When the project was begun, practically all of the national forest land and national park areas were in the West. President Roosevelt, congnizant of this unintentional discrimination against the Eastern and Southern sections, allocated $20,000,000 to correct it.[54] By the end of the third camp period $17,992,424 had been obligated and the acreage acquired included 4,892,804 acres added to the national forests in twenty-two states, and 67,100 acres to the national parks.[55] The most noted national parks and monuments for which the purchase of additional land was authorized were the Great Smoky Mountains National Park, the Shenandoah National Park, the Mammoth Cave National Park, and the Colonial National Monument in Virginia.[56] An additional allocation of $10,000,000 to purchase forest lands was made December 1, 1934, to aid in rounding out the program.[57]

In addition to the federal lands acquired, the conservation program has stimulated the states into acquiring park areas. Since the inauguration of the program seven states have acquired their first park areas and over seventeen others have acquired new parks.[58] Most of these new additions have been the generous gifts of citizens to the states. Over 474,590 acres of recreational areas have been added by more than thirty-two states. The number of new state parks established is approximately one hundred and fifteen, while additions were made to forty-three existing park areas.[59] Those of historical interest are the Santo Domingo Mission in Georgia and the Richmond Battlefield Park.[60] Secretary Ickes in his report to the President on the first year's work of the State Park Work said that according to information received from governors and other state officials their acquisitions and other development programs have advanced from ten to twenty years.[61]

The development and improvement of existing as well as newly acquired recreational areas has been another important achievement of the conservation program. This work includes new camp grounds, parking areas, such park structures as bathing beaches, bath houses, artificial lakes, cottages, shelters, sanitary water systems, roads and trails. All types of forest recreation are provided. For those who desire to "rough it" over sixty "primitive areas" have been established. For other recreationists approximately 10,000 acres of camp ground in the one hundred and forty-eight national forests have been improved and several thousand public camp grounds provided with modern camping conveniences.[62] The increased number of visitors to the recreational areas in recent years shows the need for these improvements. In 1934, 3,956,720 people visited the national parks and national monuments during the travel season as compared with 3,455,365 in 1933.[63]

The rehabilitation of historic landmarks by the Civilian Conservation Corps is an interesting type of work. Complete restoration is not the objective of this work. These landmarks are partially restored so that the average visitor may appreciate them as historical shrines in the

life of the nation. As the work is concerned primarily with historical values, each project is planned and supervised by historical advisers. The two most interesting archeological research projects are the search for prehistoric material in the Grand Canyon National Park, and excavations at Jamestown and Yorktown.[64] Civil War battlefields which have been partially restored and made more accessible to visitors are Chicamauga-Chattanooga National Military Park; Shiloh National Military Park; and the Richmond Battlefield Park, which includes the battlefields of Cold Harbor, Fort Harrison and Malvern Hill.[65] The aim in this work is to restore as much as possible the original appearance of these historic places and to classify and preserve the relics found on them.

Although the actual economic value of the emergency conservation program is evident, the greatest results must wait for future determination. Many of the permanent improvements, plus labor saving costs, are almost incalculable in dollars and cents. However, the cooperating project administrative departments have valued the work accomplished during the first year and a half of the program at $291,688,443.22. This amount was divided as follows: Department of Agriculture, $223,776,-762.56; Department of the Interior, $64,327,945.45; and War Department, $3,583.735.21.[66] The financial benefit of the project work accomplished for the initial two-year period of the Civilian Conservation Corps program is estimated to be around $400,000,000.[67] This evaluation does not include the benefits resulting from such operations as fighting forest fires, controlling insect pests and diseases, etc. Neither does it attempt to evaluate in dollars and cents the social benefits that over one million men have received through employment in the emergency conservation work.

The Cost in Relation to Results

An analysis of the cost of the emergency conservation program shows that expenditures not only played an important part in the direct relief of unemployment and distress but also stimulated business, industry and trade. The total expenditures and obligations for the project from the beginning of the program to March 1, 1935, can be grouped as follows:[68]

Pay of enrollees	$203,600,124.00
Pay of civilian employees	56,319,230.47
Shelter	35,489,608.67
Clothing	81,369,014.01
Subsistence	78,372,474.90
Medical treatment	10,811,834.35
Supplies, materials, etc.	82,157,586.00
Travel of persons	24,435,684.72
Transportation of things	15,903,591.06
Utilities	3,810,829.98
Miscellaneous	34,707,073.40
Total	$626,977,051.56

The above statement does not include $24,110,033.73 expended in land purchases from emergency conservation work funds.[69] Figures

are not available for the entire two-year period cost of the conservation project but estimates place the total expenditures and obligations, exclusive of land purchases, at $650,000,000.[70] For this total expenditure more than one million men have been given employment, varying from several weeks to fifteen months and in some cases longer, over a period of two years. According to the officials in charge of project administration their programs have been advanced from ten to twenty years. The economic value of the work accomplished in the conservation of the nation's natural resources has been estimated around $400,000,000. Finally, business and industry have been stimulated by the purchase of equipment, materials, and supplies.

An indication of the importance of the expenditure of Emergency Conservation Work Funds to business, industry and trade is shown in an analysis of the expenditures for the first year of the program.[71] The cost for that year, including $7,588,325.75 expended on Indian production camps and $9,998,415.38 spent by the Forest Service for land acquisitions, was $296,127,833.32.[72] Of this total the following amounts were spent for industrial commodities and services:

15,070 automotive units	$11,000,000
Camp equipment	2,565,000
268,000 folding canvas cots	
7,000,000 tent pins	
400,000 brooms	
129,000 large vegetable dishes	
86,000 wash basins	
50,000 fire extinguishers	
132 other types of items	
Clothing, shoes, and textiles	33,240,000
2,097,000 blue denim jumpers	
1,680,000 work gloves	
3,400,000 pairs wool stockings	
300,000 men's bedding	
2,261,000 pairs service and commercial shoes	
570,000 pairs overshoes and rubber boots	
Construction material	15,400,000
180,000 bags of cement	
123,000 window sash	
2,000,000 feet of water pipe	
Hundreds of millions of board feet of lumber	
Several million pounds of nails	
163 other types of purchases	
Recreational and education equipment	664,500
Stoves, repairs and parts	1,100,000
Field office equipment, furniture and supplies	349,700
Fuels	2,295,000
Machines, repairs and parts	591,000
Miscellaneous supplies and services	3,800,000[73]
Total	$71,006,200

From the beginning of the emergency conservation program to March 1, 1935, approximately $367,414,033.91 of the total expenditures and obligations were for land, materials, supplies, transportation, etc. Some of the purchases made during approximately two years of the program were as follows: 1,406,000 hogs, 187,500 steers, about 113,000,000

pounds of potatoes, 45,000,000 pounds of fresh pork, 135,000,000 pounds of flour, 23,000,000 pounds of coffee, 20,000 autos and other automotive or heavy machinery items.[74] In addition, 900,000 uniforms, over 2,800,000 pairs of shoes, and approximately 7,000,000 suits of underclothing have been distributed to the enrollees. Besides, most of the $283,672,151.38 obligated during that time for cash allowances and wages has gone into the channels of trade through allotments spent by the dependents and in expenditures made in and about the camps by the enrollees and administrators themselves.[75]

Locally, farmers, merchants and other business men have been greatly benefited by the camps established in their communities. Food expenditures for an average of 300,000 men, at approximately thirty-seven cents ration cost per day, amount to some $3,330,000 per month. Approximately half of this amount is generally spent locally.[76] This means that for each camp over $1,000 a month for food alone is normally distributed among the business men in the vicinity of the camp. Besides, the enrollees have from three to five dollars to spend each month, and the civilian employees spend part of their salaries locally.[77] It has been estimated that from $3,000 to $5,000 is expended monthly for goods and services by each camp in the local market. In addition camp construction has provided work for local labor.[78]

Director Fechner, in a radio address, termed the benefits derived from every relief dollar spent as giving "double or triple value." He said:

> Bringing the picture down to an individual enrollee, here is what the Emergency Conservation Work does. For five hundred dollars, we give a boy a job for six months. We feed, clothe him, give him the chance to improve his economic position, make him a better citizen. The same five hundred dollars cares for his family for six months. The same five hundred dollars buys six months of earnest work which is materially increasing our national wealth. This sum, multiplied many times, also flows quickly into the channels of trade, quickening the economic recovery which will eventually absorb the services of the men when they leave the Corps.[79]

From an analysis of the social and economic objectives and consequences of the emergency conservation work program, one may readily conclude that the most beneficial result of the whole project has been the re-establishment of a healthy outlook on life for a civilian army of one million or more men. Imbued with such "spiritual values" as faith in themselves, in their country, and in humanity, it can be expected that most of these men will return to their homes as law-abiding, useful and respectable citizens. Once more they can look to the future knowing the value of honest hard work, mutual helpfulness and cooperation. The social effect upon the several million dependents, whose morale has been kept from breaking by the allotments sent home, will be far reaching in the development of good citizenship in the communities from whence the enrollees enlisted. Furthermore, the educational and practical lessons learned in camp will aid the men

in securing a livelihood, either as conservation workers or in the usual vocations.

The fact that the death rate and sickness and accident admission rate compare favorably with those in private life shows that the detrimental results of such a nation-wide undertaking were not as bad as many had feared. The effect of the Safety First campaign will be awaited with interest. If it lowers the accident and death rates appreciably, the campaign will be justified. Moreover, it will probably have a nationwide effect upon the steadily mounting toll of accidents in the country.

The tangible economic results in relation to the ultimate objective of the program, the conservation of the natural resources, will practically equal the cost of the initial two year project, if the amount spent for land acquisitions and permanent improvements is excluded. Since the program was primarily an unemployment relief measure, the fact that its direct economic returns approximate the costs in dollars and cents speaks well for its administration. The indirect results upon unemployment, trade and industry have contributed to industrial recovery. These results, as far as the emergency conservation work program are concerned, come under the heading of costs, but they should be given considerable weight in justifying the whole project.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

Although the conservation program was proposed partly to alleviate an emergency, it was not inaugurated without considerable discussion on the part of its sponsor and his advisers. In spite of the operation of apparently successful similiar conservation camp projects in Europe and to some extent in America, there was an unfavorable reaction to the proposed program. This reaction was due more, perhaps, to the bigness of the project and the methods of administration than to the idea itself. However, confidence in the President triumphed, and Congress gave him almost blanket authority to carry out his emergency conservation work program.

Since the program was an emergency measure it was expedient that existing governmental services be utilized as much as possible in order to get the work started at once. The overhead organization was not topheavy in spite of the hugeness of the project and the number of governmental agencies involved. The administration of the program was made responsible to the President by the establishment of the Emergency Conservation Work organization. Coordination was provided for in the setting up of the Advisory Council.

The selection of the workers was given to existing organizations which were familiar with the relief needs of the communities as well as with the destitution and fitness of the applicants. Mobilization of most of the men was naturally given to the Army which had the facilities and personnel necessary to care for a vast army of men, even though the object was work instead of fighting. How well the Army did this task is expressed by the Secretary of War in his report to the President. He said:

> Every phase of the Army's responsibility in the Civilian Conservation Corps program has been discharged expeditiously, economically, and efficiently. Not a single man certified for enrollment by the Department of Labor or the Veterans' Administration had been delayed, through failure of any agency of the War Department, in reaching his final destination. In spite of the need for haste, no measure has been adopted that has exposed individuals of the . . . Corps to unnecessary hardship or avoidable discomfort.[1]

Administration of most of the camps was given to the Army, because the other designated services were not especially trained and equipped for a task of so great magnitude. With camp administration in the hands of one department and selection of the men and project administration in several other departments and agencies, the success of the entire program depended largely upon cooperation. The cooperation obtained by the services administering the program has been pronounced by the War Department as exemplary.[2] Although military administration of the conservation camps is deplored by various organizations and individuals, "the Civilian Conservation Corps

constitutes a purely civil organization," in the eyes of the War Department.[3] The administrative personnel, now composed for the most part of Reserve officers, uses civil ways and means instead of military discipline to compel obedience to the rules and regulations authorized by the President for the good of the camps. Observations by interested persons and reports of camp administrators show that disciplinary troubles have been insignificant. Both the observers and the Army personnel attribute this showing largely to the splendid leadership of the administration officers and the cooperative attitude of the enrollees themselves.

The ultimate success of the program was placed in departments primarily concerned with the conservation of the natural resources. These departments assigned most of the work to the services already engaged in conservation or similar work. Cooperation with states, counties, and municipal agencies was brought about by applying the principle of Federal grants-in-aid to the States. This cooperative work has resulted in expansion of state conservation programs, especially the acquiring and developing of state forests and state park areas. The tangible results of the work of the men, most of whom had been unemployed and adapted to urban environment and work, are evident, although not precisely measurable by the yardstick of dollars and cents. The same may be said for the benefits derived by the men themselves from their work and life in the conservation camps.

In judging the success or failure of the emergency conservation work program the following questions have to be answered: (1) Was there need for an extensive employment and conservation program? (2) Did the means used to accomplish the purpose of the program produce the desired results? (3) Even if the means employed did accomplish the desired ends, did they produce undesirable consequences which counterbalance the benefits of the ends in mind? (4) Even if resulting consequences are desirable, is the cost of the project justifiable?

The need for a program to partly relieve the acute conditions of the widespread distress and unemployment and to provide for the "restoration of the country's depleted natural resources,"[4] was evident. It is still more evident today when 2,600,000 of those on relief are between the ages of eighteen and twenty-four.[5] Since the need for re-employment of young men is imperative, the conservation of the natural resources offers the best means of employment in productive work where their labor does not compete with private industry. The desirability of such conservation work is also evident and its value is as potent as the need for re-employment. Plans, of both long range and short term, for the conservation of the national forests and parks, made after years of study, were ready for execution as soon as the governmental machinery could be placed in operation.

Considering the purpose as a whole, one may readily conclude that the means used to accomplish it produced the desired results. By dividing the purpose into three logical objectives, however, one can

see varying results accomplished for each objective. An analysis of the immediate results of the project shows that acute distress has been directly relieved for approximately one million enrollees and for several million of their dependents, but only for varying lengths of time during the initial program. Yet, many thousands more could have been benefited had not the quota allotments for each state for the Junior group been based entirely upon population, which necessitated the enrollment of men not on relief in order to fill the local and state quotas. This condition, however, will be remedied in part if the proposed program is adopted. It provides for fifty per cent of the Junior enrollees to be selected on the basis of population and the remainder on the basis of unemployment.[6]

The second objective is so closely interwoven with the first that it is difficult to distinguish the results accomplished. The results obtained for the relief of acute distress, however, are not so striking as those for the relief of unemployment. It is true that during the past two years over a million men have been mobilized, largely from the ranks of the unemployed, but only for varying lengths of time. The average enrollment has been between 300,000, and 350,000 men, which means as one writer expressed it, that the Civilian Conservation Corps took only one out of forty-eight of the unemployed.[7] The new program will appreciably relieve unemployment, since it provides for an enrollment of 545,000 Juniors and 55,000 war veterans[8] as compared with a total of 323,225 in the present project.[9] There also may be corresponding increases in the quotas of Indians, local experienced woodsmen and residents of the territorial possessions.

If "spiritual values" are included in the two objectives mentioned, the results show accomplishment, at least for the time being, of this phase of the purpose of the program. Most of the enrollees have been benefited physically, educationally, and perhaps morally. They have been given a new outlook on life, but this result may be short-lived unless the one year service limit is eliminated and the men are given continuous work by the government until they are employed by private industry.

There are objections to the government giving continuous work relief, but if "superfluous men" are allowed to be idle a catastrophe may be precipitated. Economists are agreed that the productive capacity of this country is overdeveloped.[10] It is therefore necessary that the Federal government's recovery program provide, as David Cushman Coyle says, for "public works . . . that produce free services for the people outside of the commercial services now being provided by private business."[11] As this writer further expressed it:

> A sound public works program is one that adds to the existing fields of spending for the national surplus income. The C. W. A. was a crude and hasty attempt in the right direction. 'Raking leaves' failed to win general approval; but a well planned program for extending and improving the national parks and forests may be approved by the public. The C. C. C. has been generally successful and should be extended.[12]

The accomplishment of the third objective, the "restoration of the country's depleted natural resources," can only be determined in the light of future conservation work. Although immediate results are evident and calculable, it will be years before the nation realizes appreciable return on its investment. Future results of the present program, however, may be greatly diminished unless the emergency program is made permanent in some form or another, in order to conserve what has already been accomplished. It is not likely that the project will be abandoned after the present emergency is over, although the techniques of its administration may be changed. Proposals have already been made to transfer the building, equipment, etc., to the project administration agencies.[13]

In analyzing the results of the conservation work no immediate undesirable consequences which counterbalance the benefits obtained are evident. Such consequences may crop out in the future in the following forms: (1) The quasi-military feature of camp administration might easily lead to the development of a military spirit among the men which some unscrupulous demogogs might utilize in the form of tyrannical military discipline or in other ways foreign to the traditional principles of American democracy. (2) The association of white and colored enrollees in the same camps may tend to break down existing social barriers between the two races and ultimately emphasize a demand for complete social equality or even the amalgamation of the races. (3) The selection of the civilian employees as well as the enrollees themselves might become a "spoils" system in the hands of local patronage dispensers.

Assuming that the resulting consequences of the emergency conservation program are on the whole desirable, it cannot be acclaimed a success unless the cost of the project is justifiable. Considered as a work-relief project the per capita cost compares most favorably with other work relief measures of the government, and the results have been unquestionably more satisfactory. Moreover, as a long-run investment this project will pay for itself many times over in tangible as well as in intangible returns. But can America afford to mortgage the future by financing this and other work-relief projects, when the Federal budget is unbalanced and the national debt is rising to unprecendented proportions? The answer is yes; for in the words of the English economist, Keynes, "how the construction today of great and glorious works can impoverish the future, no man can see until his mind is beset by false analogies from an irrelevant accountancy."[14]

The saving of the total cost of the emergency conservation project for the initial two-year period would not have helped appreciably in balancing the budget. Furthermore, a similar amount would have been necessary to take care of the relief needs of most of the members of the conservation camps and their dependents through other forms of work relief or by direct relief, and the gratifying results of the work of the Civilian Conservation Corps and other agencies administering the program probably would not have been obtained. Besides, some

writers believe "that the Federal budget ought never to be balanced except momentarily at the shadowy 'normal' point between good and bad times," and they further contend that "to the country at large there is no extravagance in turning idleness into public wealth."[15] Work relief has been adopted as the future relief policy of the Federal government. In announcing this new policy the President has said:

> "It is the duty dictated by every intelligent consideration of national policy to ask you [Congress] to make it possible for the United States to give employment to all these three and one-half million employable people now on relief, pending their absorption in a rising tide of private employment."[16]

The President, in listing the projects suitable for government work, included "the extension and enlargement of the successful work of the Civilian Conservation Corps."[17]

NOTES

Notes to Chapter One

1John A. Lapp, **The First Chapter of the New Deal**, p. xv.

2Mrs. James Roosevelt, **My Boy Franklin**, p. 66.

3Professor Raymond Moley, "Permanent Place for C. C. C. Seen by Editor of 'Today;'" **Happy Days**, II, No. 1, p. 9. **Happy Days** is the authorized Weekly Newspaper of the Civilian Conservation Corps. It is published by the Happy Days Publishing Company, Washington, D. C.

4William James, "The Moral Equivalent of War," **International Conciliation Documents**, February, 1910, Number 27, pp. 17-18.

5Text of President Roosevelt's Talk at the Yale Alumni Luncheon, June 20, 1934, in The Baltimore **Sun**, June 21, 1934, p. 2.

6Editorial, "Forestry Minded," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27, 460, p. 18:2.

7Nelson C. Brown, "President Has Long Practice in Forestry," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27, 490, sec. 8, p. 1:3. [Mr. Brown is professor of Forest Utilization, New York State College].

8 Ibid., p. 1:3.

9 Editorial, "Forestry Minded," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,460, p. 18:2.

10 Nelson C. Brown, "President Has Long Practice in Forestry," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,490, sec. 8, p. 1:3.

11 Earle Looker, **This Man Roosevelt**, p. 217.

12 Franklin D. Roosevelt, **Looking Forward**, p. 62.

13 Ibid., p. 62.

14 Ibid., p. 63.

15 Looker, op. cit., p. 217.

16 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 3, pp. 3004-3005.

17 The Candidate's proposal to give employment to a million men seems exaggerated if the Emergency Conservation Work program alone is considered. The high peak of its employment at any one time was reached on August 14, 1934, when the total number of employees, excluding the Washington personnel, was 383,070, of which 359,070 were enrollees. Memorandum for the Press, Emergency Conservation Work 88,731, (August 14, 1934), p. 1. [This reference will be given hereafter as follows: Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. the number given at the end of the release and the date and page]. However, the President may have had other phases of conservation in mind which he has lately announced.

18 Governor Franklin D. Roosevelt's Speech of Acceptance, in the Campaign Book of the Democratic Party: Candidates and Issues, 1932, p. 26.

19 The New York **Times**, LXXXI, No. 27,192, pp. 1:2; 15:1.

20 Governor Franklin D. Roosevelt's Atlanta Speech, in the **Commercial and Financial Chronicle**, CXXXV: 2924-2925.

21 Ibid., p. 3088.

22 Charles A. Beard and George H. E. Smith, **The Future Comes: A Study of the New Deal**, p. 42.

23 73rd Cong., Special Session of the Senate, **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 5.

24 "What the President Told the C. C. C.," **Happy Days**, I, No. 10, p. 1.

25 "The First Chapter of the March Into the Forests," **Happy Days**, I, No. 20, p. 1.

26 73d Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 247.

27 Ibid., p. 247; Also, "The Army Has Varied Peace Time Jobs," The New York **Times**, LXXXIII, No. 27,447, sec. 8, p. 1:3.

28 "Farm and Job Bills to go to Congress," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,445, p. 1:7, 2:1.

29 President's Message to Congress on Relief of Unemployment, 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.

30 Ibid., p. 650.

31 On July 22, 1933, the enrollment stood at 301,230. First Report: Director of Emergency Conservation Work, p. 32. (For the Period April 5, 1933 to September 30, 1933). [Hereafter this reference will be given as follows: First Report; Director of E. C. W.]

32 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.

33 Ibid., p. 650.

34 Ibid., p. 650.

35 Ibid., p. 650.

36 73d Cong., 1st sess., Joint Hearings on Unemployment Relief, Committee on Education and Labor United States Senate and Committee on Labor House of Representatives on S. 598, p. 3.

37 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.

38 Ibid., p. 701.

39 "Roosevelt Asks Congress to Make Work for 250,000," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27451, p. 1:7-8.

40 "Roosevelt Parley Speeds Job Bill," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,452, p. 6:4.

41 Ibid., p. 6:4.

42 William F. Green's Criticisms of the C. C. C. in The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,451, p. 2:1.

43 "Rail Union Head Holds Plan Weak," The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,453, p. 10:2.

44 73d Cong., 1st sess., Unemployment Relief: Joint Hearings on S. 598. p. 6.
45 Ibid., p. 7.
46 Ibid., p. 8.
47 Ibid., pp. 8-9.
48 Ibid., p. 12.
49 Ibid., p. 12.
50 Ibid., pp. 13, 14, 15.
51 Ibid., p. 15.
52 Ibid., pp. 14-20.
53 Ibid., p. 30.
54 Ibid., p. 22.
55 Ibid., pp. 23-24.
56 Ibid., pp. 25-26.
57 Ibid., pp. 27-28.
58 Ibid., pp. 34-40.
59 Ibid., pp. 33-34, 36-38.
60 Ibid., pp. 40-41.
61 Ibid., p. 43.
62 Ibid., p. 41.
63 Ibid., p. 42.
64 Ibid., p. 42.
65 Ibid., pp. 45-46.
66 Ibid., p. 56.
67 Ibid., p. 47.
68 Ibid., p. 48.
69 Ibid., p. 49.
70 Ibid., p. 61.
71 Ibid., p. 53.
72 Ibid., pp. 50-52.
73 Ibid., p. 53.
74 Ibid., p. 67.
75 Ibid., p. 68.
76 Ibid., p. 72.
77 Ibid., p. 71.
78 Ibid., pp. 72-73.
79 Ibid., p. 73.
80 The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27,455, sec. 2, p. 2:8.
81 Ibid., p. 2:8.
82 Ibid., No. 27,451, p. 16:2.
83 Ibid., No. 27,454, p. 4:2.
84 Ibid., No. 27,453, p. 10:2.
85 73d Cong. 1st sess., Unemployment Relief: Joint Hearings on S. 598, p. 73.
86 73d Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 861.
87 Ibid., p. 861.
88 Ibid., pp. 862-863.
89 Ibid., p. 863.
90 Ibid., p. 862.
91 Ibid., p. 869.
92 Ibid., pp. 869, 916, 921-922, 924-925, 929, 931-932, 935-936.
93 Ibid., pp. 934-935.
94 Ibid., pp. 915-916, 927, 929-930, 931-932, 935.
95 Ibid., p. 916.
96 Ibid., Unemployment Relief: Joint Hearings on S. 598, p. 6.
97 Ibid., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, pp. 921-922.
98 Ibid., pp. 921-929.
99 Ibid., p. 929.
100 Ibid, p. 876.
101 Ibid., H. Report No. 13, pp. 2-3, 5.
102 Ibid., pp. 6-10.
103 Ibid., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, pp. 953-956.
104 Ibid., pp. 953-956.
105 Ibid., pp. 955-995.
106 Ibid., pp. 983, 987, 993.
107 Ibid., pp. 981, 982, 983, 984-987, 989-990, 993-994.
108 Ibid., p. 983.
109 Ibid., Unemployment Relief: Joint Hearings on S. 598, p. 67.
110 Ibid., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 983.
111 Ibid., p. 987.
112 Ibid., pp. 990, 993.
113 Ibid., pp. 994-995.
114 Ibid., pp. 994-995.
115 Ibid., pp. 1012-1013.
116 Ibid., **Daily Cong. Record**, LXXVII, No. 16, p. 1044.
117 Ibid., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 1043.
118 Ibid., p. 1073.
119 The New York **Times**, No. 27,461, p. 6:1.
120 73d Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 864.
121 48 Stat. L. 22.
122 Ibid., section 1.
123 Ibid., sections 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.
124 73d Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.
125 48 Stat. L. 22.

126 Ibid., sec. 1.
127 Executive Order No. 6101, p. 1.
128 Robert Fechner was born in 1876 in Chattanooga, Tennessee. He attended the public schools of Macon and Griffin, Georgia. After four years as an apprenticed machinist in the shops of "Old Georgia Railroad," he took to the "road" to gain experience. He worked in Mexico, Central America and South America, then located in Savannah as an employee of the Georgia Central Railroad. In 1914 he was elected a member of the General Executive Board of the International Association of Machinists and later became its Vice President. His formal education was limited to a little over a year at Georgia School of Technology. During the World War he and President Roosevelt had much work in common. Robert Fechner's Life: E. C. W. Personal File. (Copy).
129 First Report: Director of E. C. W. p. 9.
130 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 3, (January 25, 1934).
131 Executive Order No. 6101, sec. 2.
132 **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, pp. 2, 5; Also, I, No. 24, p. 1. (During the first camp period Arno B. Cammerer succeeded Mr. Albright who resigned. First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. ii. In the second period, F. A. Silcox succeeded the late Mr. Stuart. Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. ii.).
133 First Report: Director of E. C. W. pp. 2-3, 9.
134 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 1.
135 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 3, 7.
136 Ibid., pp. 4-5; Also, Third Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 2, 27-28.
137 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 5, (January 25, 1934).
138 Ibid., pp. 4-5.
139 Station and Strength Report, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, Adjutant General's Office, pp. 79-104, 109, (January 31, 1934); Also, Ibid., from Sheet No. 57, of the Ninth Corps Area Report, (August 31, 1933).
140 President's message to Congress on Relief of Unemployment, 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.
141 73d Cong. 1st sess., Unemployment Relief: Joint Hearings on S. 598, p. 4.
142 **Happy Days**, I, No. 23, pp. 1, 12.
143 Ibid., p. 12.
144 Ibid., p. 12.
145 First Report: Director of E. C. W.. p. 2.
146 **Happy Days**, I, No. 23, p. 12.
147 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. (73320), July 3, 1933, p. 7.
148 **Happy Days**, I, No. 22, p. 1.
149 72d Cong. 2nd sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVI, Part 2, p. 1439.
150 Ibid., Part 4, pp. 3838-3839.
151 **Happy Days**, I, No. 22, p. 1.
152 Ibid., I, No. 20, p. 1.
153 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. (73320), July 3, 1933 p. 7.
154 Ibid., p. 7.
155 Ibid., pp. 7-8.
156 **Happy Days**, I, No. 22, p. 12.
157 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 32.
158 Ibid., p. 32.
159 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. (73320), July 3, 1933, pp. 1, 8, Also, Annual Report, The Secretary of War, 1933, pp. 4-5, 192.
160 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. (73320), July 3, 1933, pp. 2-3.
161 Station and Strength Reports, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, Adjutant General's Office, for August 31, 1933, January 31, 1934 and August 31, 1934.
162 Ernest K. Lindley, **The Roosevelt Revolution**, p. 102.
163 Station and Strength Report of Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, August 31, 1933, Sheet No. 4, of Third Corps Area Report.
164 **Forest Worker**, IX, No. 3, p. 12, (May 1933).
165 **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, p. 12, (Chart).
166 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 73320, July 3, 1933, p. 2.
167 First Report: Director of E. C. W. p. 26. There were twenty-eight companies in six of the nine camps established by the War Department, which in reality increased their number of camps to thirty-one. The number of camps in Alaska and Puerto Rico is found by dividing the total number of enrollees by one hundred and twenty and taking the quotient to the nearest whole number.
168 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 21-22.
169 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W. 80891, p. 8, January 25, 1934.
170 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 21-22.
171 Handbook of State Park Emergency Conservation Work: National Park Service, State Park Division, p. 89306, (August 25, 1934), [Mimeographed]. This reference will be referred to as follows: Handbook of State Park E. C. W.
172 Report of the Forester, 1934, pp. 15, 17.
173 Ibid., p. 4; Handbook of State Park E. C. W., p. 89306.
174 Handbook of State Park E. C. W. 89306, (August 25, 1934).
175 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 18.
176 Report on the Operation of the C. C. C., for the two year period: Director of E. C. W. to the President, p. 3, April 5, 1935.
177 Ibid., p. 3.
178 Personal Letter from the Director of Publicity's Office, E. C. W., March 4, 1935; **Happy Days**, II, No. 31, p. 1.
179 **Happy Days**, I, No. 2, p. 1.
180 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 73320, July 3, 1933, p. 5.

181 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 3.
182 Ibid., pp. 2, 22.
183 Ibid., p. 19.
184 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 20.
185 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 15.
186 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record** (Daily), LXXIX, No. 51, p. 3753.
187 Address before the Star Radio Forum, Wednesday Evening, October 24, 1934, by Director of E. C. W., p. 4, (91803).
188 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 79749, December 29, 1933.
189 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 8, January 25, 1934 (E. C. W. 80891).
190 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 84866, May 11, 1934, p. 1.
191 Ibid., E. C. W. 86728, June 29, 1934, p. 1.
192 Ibid., E. C. W. 90267, September 19, 1934, p. 1.
193 Ibid., E. C. W. 93963, December 21, 1934, p. 1.
194 Ibid., E. C. W. 73320, July 3, 1933, p. 2.
195 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 32.
196 Ibid., p. 3.
197 Ibid., p. 5.
198 Ibid., pp. 7, 33.
199 Ibid., p. 33.
200 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 8-9 January 25, 1934, (E. C. W. 80891).
201 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 24-25.
202 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., 88731, August 14, 1934.
203 Personal Letter, Director of Publicity, E. C. W., (3-4-1935).
204 Ibid., Personal Letter, Director of Publicity, E. C. W.

Notes to Chapter Two

1 48 Stat. L. 22.
2 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 27-28, (Appendix G.).
3 Ibid. pp. 27-28.
4 Executive Order No. 6101, (April 5, 1933).
5 48 Stat. L. 22.
6 Executive Order No. 6101.
7 Executive Order No. 6200, sec. 1, (July 11, 1933).
8 Executive Order No. 6126, (May 8, 1933).
9 Executive Order No. 6200, sec. 2.
10 Executive Order No. 6160, secs. 1, 2, 3, (June 7, 1933).
11 Ibid., sec. 6.
12 Executive Order No. 6126, sec. 4.
13 Information received from the Office of the Personal Assistant to the Director of E. C. W.
14 Executive Order No. 6126, Sec. 4.
15 Executive Order No. 6126, sec. 4.
16 Executive Order No. 6440, (November 18, 1933).
17 Emergency Conservation Work Chart No. 209, January 1934, in Current Organization Charts of United States Administrative Agencies; National Emergency Council.
18 United States Government Manual, Chart facing p. 469, E. C. W.
19 Emergency Conservation Work Chart No. 209, January 1934; Also, United States Government Manual, E. C. W. Chart facing p. 469, for recent changes and corrections.
20 Ibid.
21 Ibid.
22 Ibid. Also personal information from the Office of the Personal Assistant to the Director of E. C. W.
23 Handbook of State Park, E. C. W., Chapters III-040, III-050, III-051; Also, E. C. W. Charts: Interior Department, National Park Service.
24 Handbook of State Park E. C. W., Chapters III-040, III-050. There were seven special investigators appointed during the first camp period, one for each Corps area except the Second and Third, and the Fifth and Sixth, where there was one for each two areas. **Happy Days**, I, No. 13, p. 8. Five inspectors were also appointed early in the first camp period. **Happy Days**, I, No. 9, p. 12.
25 Executive Order No. 6101.
26 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 15, 1934, pp. 2-3, 20-22.
27 **West Virginia Legislative Handbook**, XVIII, 615.
28 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for E. C. W.: Bulletin No. 3, pp. 18-19; Also, **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, p. 3.
29 First Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 2-3.
30 Ibid., p. 3.
31 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 4, January 25, 1934, (E. C. W. 80891); Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 1.
32 First report: Director of E. C. W., p. 19; Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 20; Third Report; Director of E. C. W. p. 15.
33 Ibid., Nevada's quota was originally two hundred and fifty.
34 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 15.
35 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 86728, June 29, 1934, p. 3.
36 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 19.

37 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 15; Also, Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., 86728, June 29, 1934, p. 3.
38 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 19.
39 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 15.
40 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 20.
41 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 15, 1934, pp. 3-7.
42 Ibid. pp. 4-5.
43 48 Stat. L. 22.
44 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 25, 1933, p. 4.
45 Ibid., Revised to September 15, 1934, pp. 4-5.
46 Ibid., p. 5.
47 Ibid., pp. 5-6.
48 Ibid., pp. 3, 7, 15.
49 **Happy Days**, I, No. 43, p. 1.
50 Handbook of State Park, E. C. W., Chapter III-126, (90413).
51 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 15, 1934, pp. 6-7.
52 Ibid., pp. 8-9.
53 Ibid., pp. 10, 23.
54 Ibid., pp. 10-11.
55 Ibid., pp. 11-12.
56 Ibid., p. 9.
57 Ibid., pp. 18-19.
58 Ibid., pp. 18-19.
59 **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, p. 3.
60 Handbook of State Park, E. C. W., Chapter 111-622 (36690).
61 Handbook Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 15, 1934, p. 19.
62 Ibid., 19.
63 **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, p. 3.
64 **Happy Days**, I, No. 3, p. 12.
65 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 2.
66 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, Civilian Conservation Corps, March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 12.
67 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 3.
68 Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior: Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1933, p. 70; First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 3.
69 Ibid., Annual Report: Fiscal Year, June 30, 1933, p. 71.
70 The New York **Times**, LXXXII, No. 27, 491, p. 9:3.
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73 Stat. L. 347.
74 Ibid., 651.
75 Jenks Cameron, **The Development of Governmental Forest Control in the United States**, p. 35.
76 Ibid., p. 206.
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80 73d Cong. 1st sess., Joint Hearings on S. 598, p. 40.
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82 Ibid., sec. 1, pp. 1-2.
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87 Ibid., sec. 5, pp. 39-40; E. C. W., Chart No. 209, January, 1934.
88 Ibid., sec. 3, p. 17; Happy Days, I, No. 18, p. 11.
89 **Happy Days**, I, No. 1, p. 12, Corps Areas and their headquarters are as follows: First, the New England States, headquarters at Boston. Second, Delaware, New Jersey and New York, headquarters at Governor's Island. Third, Maryland, Pennsylvania and Virginia, headquarters, Baltimore. Fourth, the remaining Southern states east of the Mississippi River, except Kentucky and West Virginia which are in the Fifth along with Indiana and Ohio. The headquarters of the Fourth are at Ft. McPherson, Atlanta, and those of the Fifth at Columbus, Ohio. Sixth, the states bordering on Lake Michigan and part of Missouri, headquarters, Chicago. Seventh, the states between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains, except Texas, with headquarters at Omaha, Nebraska. Eighth, the southwestern states, Colorado and parts of Oklahoma and Wyoming with headquarters at Ft. Sam Houston, Texas. Ninth, the Pacific Coast and the remaining mountain states, with headquarters at San Francisco.
90 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 1, p. 2.
91 Ibid., sec. 1, p. 2.

92 Ibid., sec. 1, p. 2; Handbook of State Park, E. C. W., Chapters III-050, III-051, III-050, (94678), Revision, (January 2, 1935).

93 Handbook for Educational Advisers; Civilian Conservation Corps Camps, Prepared by . . . Office of Education, Approved and published by the Secretary of War, January 4, 1934, p. 1.

94 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 5.

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96 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 25. The fifth Corps Area has one conditioning camp, Fort Knox, for approximately 13,000 men, while the Ninth has fourteen for a total of about 11,000. The Sixth Corps has five camps for approximately 26,000 men and the Second has fourteen for the same number. The capacity of the conditioning camps varies from less than 200 for Fort Story in the Third Area to almost 10,000 for Ft. Sheridan in the Sixth.

97 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 2, pp. 4, 5, 6, 14.

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99 Handbook, Agencies Selecting Men for Emergency Conservation Work: Bulletin No. 3, Revised to September 15, 1934, pp. 8, 9, 13, 19.

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105 Station and Strength Report, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, January 31, 1934, pp. 2, 24, 99.

106 Ibid., p. 99.

107 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C. March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 5.

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110 Executive Order No. 6571, (January 23, 1934).

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113 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 6.

114 Executive Order No. 6160, p. 1, (June 7, 1933).

115 Executive Order No. 6109, (April 12, 1933).

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117 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C. March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 12. This regulation was suspended for several months during 1934.

118 Personal information, commanding officers Third and Fifth Corps Areas.

119 Handbook of State Park E. C. W., Chapter III-621, (84202).

120 Ibid., Chapter III-621 (84202); Also personal information from commanding officers of Third and Fifth Corps Areas.

121 One of the section foremen cannot be a leader because Executive Order No. 6160 limits the number of leaders to five per cent of the authorized strength of the company, which leaves only six leaders, including the senior foreman, for the camp unit organization. War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., sec. 2, p. 14, (Table of Organization-Company, C. C. C.).

122 Ibid., sec. 2, p. 14: Also personal information from commanding officers of the Third and Fifth Corps area camps.

123 Station and Strength Reports, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, for August 31, 1933; for January 31, 1934; and for August 31, 1934.

124 Ibid., Station and Strength Reports.

125 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 1, p. 2.

126 Ibid., sec. 2, p. 9.

127 Ibid., sec. 2, p. 11.

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131 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 2, p. 8.

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152 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 7, p. 49; Also, **Happy Days**, I, No. 13, p. 3.
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154 War Department Regulations; Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 7, p. 49.
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161 Ibid., p. 4.
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163 Ibid., p. 12.
164 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 6, pp. 42-43.
165 Ibid., pp. 43.
166 Ibid., p. 44.
167 This information as well as that given to the end of this chapter was received from commanding officers and other members of the camp personnel as well as from the enrollees of camps visited in the Third and Fifth Corps areas.
168 The company unit organization mentioned above is not required but it is generally the type where the company unit is enrolled at full strength. Variations from it are found, especially as to the number of sub-section and squad foremen.

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4 The General Land Office, (Service Monograph Number 13, Institute of Government Research), pp. 63-64.
5 26 Stat. L. 1103.
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15 Ibid., p. 260.
16 36 Stat. L. 961.
17 Cameron, op. cit., p. 206.
18 43 Stat. L. 653.
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28 Handbook of State Park E. C. W., Chapters III-050, III-051.

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54 Chittenden, op. cit., p. 79.

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60 Cameron, **The National Park Service**, op. cit., pp. 9-10.

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75 Executive Order No. 6166.

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34 War Department Regulations: Relief of Unemployment, C. C. C., March 6, 1934, sec. 2, pp. 7-9; Also, Executive Order No. 6160, (June 7, 1933).
35 Executive Order No. 6160.
36 By September 1, 1934, the number discharged for disciplinary reasons totaled 26,482, out of an enrollment of approximately 763,000 men for the first seventeen months of the program. Station and Strength Report of the Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, August 31, 1934, p. 131; Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 12, for total enrollment.
37 **Happy Days,** I, No. 9, p. 4, (Editorial: "Keen Sighted General").
38 Executive Order No. 6160.

39 **Happy Days, I, No. 15, p. 1; Happy Days, II, No. 25, p. 1.**
40 The New York **Times**, LXXXIV, No. 28,082, p. 19:4; **Happy Days**, II, No. 31, pp. 1, 20.
41 Editorial in the New York **Times**, LXXXIII, No. 27,679, p. 4.
42 "C. C. C., A Test Tube for Education," United States **News**, Washington, D. C., January 8, 1934, p. 1.
43 "C. C. C. Chief: Lauds Cooperation," **Happy Days**, II, No. 17, pp. 1, 20.
44 There has also been an apparent absence of political influence in the administration of the conservation program, although charges that the Postmaster General influenced the appointment of supervisors were made in the House of Representatives. Mr. Farley, however, issued a denial to this charge. (The New York **Times**, LXXXIII, No. 27, 765, p. 4:2; Also an editorial in the New York **Times** listed "taint of political patronage" as one of the Civilian Conservation Corps' weak points. (The New York **Times**, LXXXIII, No. 27,679, p. 4:4).
45 Public Res. No. 11, 74th Cong., approved April 8, 1935; **Happy Days**, II, No. 50, pp. 1, 20. 15,000 additional extra-pay positions will be open for present members of the C. C. C.

Notes to Chapter Five

1 President's Message to Congress on the Relief of Unemployment, 73d Cong., 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVII, Part 1, p. 650.
2 73d Cong., 2d sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVIII, Part 7, p. 6886.
3 "Doughboys of 1933, Off to the Woods," in **The Literary Digest**, CXV, 22-23, (April 29, 1933).
4 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 6.
5 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W. pp. 11-12, (January 25, 1934). Later tests showed weight gains averaging from eight to twelve pounds per enrollee. Report: Operation of the C. C. C., Director of E. C. W., to the President, p. 6. April 5, 1935.
6 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 6.
7 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 5.
8 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 6.
9 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 19. On the last day of each week of the Third Period the average number of enrollees sick in the hospital was 3,448. Less than eight per cent of the patients were cared for outside of Government hospitals. Ibid., p. 21. Admission figures for the second and fourth camp periods are not available.
10 Justin H. Moore, **Handbook of Financial Mathematics**, pp. 699-700, 704-705. The death rate for the enrollees is 2.7 per 1,000.
11 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 6-7.
12 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 20.
13 Ibid., p. 20; First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 5.
14 Ibid., Second Report. p. 6; Third Report, p. 21.
15 Ibid., Second Report, p. 7; Third Report, p. 21.
16 **Happy Days**, II, No. 39, p. 1.
17 Handbook State Park E. C. W., Chapter IV-001, (Addition).
18 Ibid., Chapter IV-005.
19 Ibid., Chapter IV-010.
20 Ibid., Chapters IV-030; IV, p. 87648, June 22, 1934; p. 89501, August 29. 1934; p. 87654, June 28, 1934; p. 89499, August 29, 1934; p. 87635, June 22, 1934; p. 88768, August 11, 1934; p. 88, 774, August 14, 1934; p. 89500, August 29, 1934; p. 89761, September 6, 1934; p. 90723, September 27, 1934; p. 90053, September 12, 1934; p. 90604, September 26, 1934; p. 91953, August 14, 1934. The cause of motor accidents have been classified as follows: Group one, which probably covers the majority of accidents, includes excessive speed under existing circumstances. In order to reduce the number of such accidents it is requested that the speed be regulated to meet the varying weather conditions, the kind of roads, the extent of visibility, etc. Group two, poor judgment on part of government drivers. The large number of accidents caused by this factor calls for more care and attentiveness and better knowledge of the motor vehicle on the part of the driver. Group three, discourteous drivers, including the proverbial "road-hog," "pass-on-hill-and-curve," etc. The attitude of the emergency conservation work authorities is that such drivers have no place in driving Government motor cars and should be dismissed from service. Group four, negligence on the part of both drivers. Many such accidents could be avoided if the Government drivers would give up their technical right of way on the road. The safety campaign includes twenty driving rules as a minimum requirement for chauffeurs and specific regulations as to guard rails and seats for dump trucks. Handbook State Park E. C. W., Chapters IV-015; IV-020; IV-025; p. 90078, September 13, 1934.
21 Ibid., Chapter IV, p. 88773, August 14, 1934.
22 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 94965, January 17, 1935.
23 The average number of accidents per 1,000 was seventeen for October, 1934, as compared to eighteen for the previous month. **Happy Days**, II, No. 31, p. 1.
24 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., December 22, 1934. Radio Address by Director Fechner, Conservation Day program, Friday, December 21, 1934.
25 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., 87401, July 16, 1934.
26 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., 85459, May 28, 1934.
27 Ibid., pp. 1-8.
28 Executive Order No. 6200, (July 11, 1933).
29 **Happy Days, I, No. 5, p. 2.**
30 Ibid., No. 5., p. 2; No. 13, p. 9.

31 Ibid., No. 30, p. 15.
32 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXIX, No. 51, 3753.
33 First Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 10.
34 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 13.
35 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 8, January 25, 1934, (E. C. W. 80891).
36 Ibid., p. 11.
37 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 10.
38 Third Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 7.
39 Report on the Operation of the C. C. C., Director of E. C. W. to the President, pp. 5, 7, April 5, 1935.
40 "Young Germany Faces the Labor Draft," The New York **Times**, sec. 6, pp. 5, 19, January 20, 1935.
41 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 87712, July 24, 1934.
42 Station and Strength Report, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, January 31, 1934, p. 109.
43 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W., 87712, July 24, 1934; Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 90550, September 25, 1934.
44 Station and Strength Report, Civilian Conservation Corps: War Department, August 31, 1934, p. 131.
45 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 93534, December 7, 1934., p. 1.
46 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 93534, December 7, 1934, pp. 1-5.
47 First Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 34-36; Second Report: Director of E. C. W., Appendixes F. to O, facing pp. 26-36; **Happy Days**, II, No. 31, p. 1.
48 Report on the Operation of the C. C. C., Director of E. C. W. to the President, p. 8, April 5, 1935.
49 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 83589, April 16, 1934, p. 14.
50 Ibid., E. C. W. 76857, October 1, 1933, p. 4.
51 Ibid., E. C. W. 79540, December 22, 1933, p. 5.
52 Ibid., E. C. W. 90565, September 26, 1934, p. 1.
53 Ibid., pp. 1, 3, Ibid., E. C. W., 90154, September 17, 1934, p. 1.
54 Executive Orders, Nos. 6160; 6181; 6208; 6787.
55 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 94159, December 27, 1934, p. 2; Address by Director Fechner before the Star Radio Forum, October 24, 1934, p. 11.
56 Executive Order No. 6542.
57 Ibid., No. 6910-A.
58 Annual Report, Secretary of the Interior, 1934, p. 168. States acquiring their first park areas are Mississippi, Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Virginia and West Virginia. Those acquiring new parks are, Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Tennessee, Texas, and Washington. Ibid., p. 168.
59 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 95450, January 28, 1935, pp. 1-2.
60 Ibid., E. C. W. 84740, May 8, 1934; E. C. W. 84285, April 25, 1934.
61 Ibid., E. C. W. 83589, April 16, 1934, p. 20.
62 Ibid., E. C. W. 86966, July 6, 1934, pp. 1-2.
63 **Happy Days**, II, No. 23, p. 20; I, No. 24, p. 11.
64 Memorandum for the Press, E. C. W. 83422, April 5, 1934; E. C. W. 85923, June 8, 1934; E. C. W. 88397, August 7, 1934.
65 Ibid., E. C. W., 84478, May 2, 1934; E. C. W. 85589, May 31, 1934; E. C. W. 90060, September 13, 1934; E. C. W. 84146, April 18, 1934; E. C. W. 84285, April 25, 1934.
66 Ibid., E. C. W. 94159, December 27, 1934, pp. 1-2.
67 Personal Letter, Director of Publicity, E. C. W., (3-4-1935).
68 Report on the Operation of the C. C. C., Director of E. C. W. to the President, p. 10, April 5, 1935.
69 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXIX, No. 51, p. 3753.
70 Personal Letter, Director of Publicity, E. C. W., (3-4-1935).
71 The financial report for the second year will not be available until around July 1935.
72 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., pp. 47, Appendix P, facing p. 47, 10-11.
73 Ibid., pp. 11-12.
74 Report on the Operation of the C. C. C., Director of E. C. W. to the President, pp. 9-10, April 5, 1935.
75 Ibid., pp. 9-10.
76 Second Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 11.
77 Interim Report: Director of E. C. W., p. 13, January 25, 1934, (E. C. W. 80891).
78 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXIX, No. 51, p. 3753.
79 Address by Director of E. C. W. Before the Star Radio Forum, October 24, 1934, pp. 13-14. The total costs per man per year have been $1,173.00 and the costs of the C. C. C. per enrollee alone has approximated $1,020 per year. The average member serves eight months. Two Years of Emergency Conservation Work, (C. C. C.), April 5, 1933-March 31, 1935, pp. 4-5, (99076-D).

Notes to Chapter Six

1 Annual Report, Secretary of War, 1933, p. 6.
2 Ibid., p. 6.
3 Ibid., p. 6.
4 48 Stat. L. 22.
5 74th Cong. 1st sess., Emergency Relief Appropriations: Hearings before the

Committee on Appropriations, United States Senate on H. J. Res. 117, p. 92, (January 20, 1935).

6 **Happy Days**, II, No. 42, p. 1.

7 Gerald W. Johnson, "The Economic Equivalent of War," in The Baltimore **Evening Sun**, November 2, 1933, sec. 2, p. 23.

8 **Happy Days**, II, No. 42, p. 1.

9 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXIX, No. 51, p. 3753.

10 Gerald W. Johnson, "The Economic Equivalent of War," in The Baltimore **Evening Sun**, November 2, 1933, sec. 2, p. 23.

11 David Cushman Coyle, "What About Public Works," in **Harper's Magazine**, CLXX:155, (January 1935).

12 Ibid., p. 155.

13 73d Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXVIII, No. 96, p. 8169.

14 John Maynard Keynes, "National Self Sufficiency," **The Yale** Review, (New Series), XX:764.

15 David Cushman Coyle, "What About Public Works," in **Harper's** Magazine, CLXX:155, (January 1935).

16 74th Cong. 1st sess., **Cong. Record**, LXXIX, No. 2, p. 91.

17 Ibid., p. 91. In conformity with the above recommendation of the President, the present Congress extended the Emergency Conservation Work project to March 31, 1937, and provided for enlargement of the program to twice its present size. Public Res. No. 11, 74th Congress, approved April 8, 1935. Only four major changes in the administrative organization and methods of the present program are contemplated, namely: (1) the raising of the maximum age limit for the junior enrollees from twenty-five to twenty-eight; (2) extension of the maximum service of the enrollees from twelve to eighteen months; (3) the allocation of quotas to States on a basis of both population and relief needs with a fifty-fifty division; and (4) the elimination of the oversize "drought" camps. Of the 600,000 enrollees authorized in the new program, 545,000 will be Juniors and 55,000 Veterans. In addition to the enrollees, the Army administrative personnel will be increased from approximately 6,000 to between 9,000 and 10,000 men. Education advisers and the project supervisory force will be increased accordingly. The 2,916 camps authorized for the fifth camp period will be divided as follows: Department of Agriculture, 2,106; Department of the Interior, 698; and the War Department, 112. **Happy Days**, II, No. 50, pp. 1, 20, Also, Two Years of Emergency Conservation Work, (Civilian Conservation Corps), April 5, 1933-March 31, 1935, p. 3, (E. C. W. 99076).

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